

Calculus, Algebra, and Analysis for JMC

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Contents

1 Group theory	3
1.1 Basic Definitions and Examples	3
1.1.1 Binary operations and groups	3
1.1.2 Consequences of the axioms of group	7
1.1.3 Modular Arithmetic and the group \mathbb{Z}_n	8
1.2 Cyclic groups	11
1.3 Symmetric groups	13
1.3.1 Permutations	13
1.3.2 Cycle	15
1.4 subgroup	17
1.5 Cosets and Lagrange Theorem	19
1.6 Future Direction of Study in Group Theory	22
2 Applied Mathematical Methods	23
2.1 Differential Equations	23
2.1.1 Definitions and examples	23
2.1.2 First Order Differential Equations	26
2.1.3 ‘Special’ Second Order Differential Equations	30
2.1.4 Equations with variable coefficients	41
2.2 Difference Equations	42
2.2.1 Definitions and Examples	42
2.2.2 Linear Difference Equations	44
2.2.3 Differencing and Difference Tables	49
2.2.4 First Order Recurrence/Discrete Nonlinear Systems . .	51
2.3 Linear Systems of Differential Equations	57
2.3.1 definitions and examples	57
2.3.2 System decoupling	63
2.3.3 Typical Phase Portraits	65

CONTENTS	2
2.3.4 Extensions	71
2.4 Partial Differentiation	72
2.4.1 Introduction	72
2.4.2 The Total Differential	74
2.4.3 Function of a function — ‘The Chain Rule’	75
2.4.4 From Cartesians to Polars	77
2.4.5 Implicit Functions	79
2.4.6 Taylor Series	80
2.4.7 Stationary Points	82
2.4.8 Application — Exact (First Order) Differential Equations	88
3 Linear Algebra	91
3.1 Introduction to Matrices and Vectors	91
3.1.1 Column vectors	91
3.1.2 Basic Matrix Operations	94
3.2 Systems of linear equations	96
3.2.1 Definitions	96
3.2.2 Gauss algorithm	97
3.3 Matrix Multiplication	102
3.3.1 Basics of Matrix Multiplication	102
3.3.2 Inverse of a Matrix and Invertibility	103
3.3.3 Determinant	106
3.4 Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors	108
3.4.1 Basic Definitions	108
3.4.2 Diagonalization	109
3.5 vector space	110
3.5.1 Axioms and Examples	110
3.5.2 Spanning Sets	113
3.5.3 Linear independence	115
3.5.4 Dimension of Subspaces	117
3.5.5 Linear Maps	119
4 Analysis	122
4.1 Sequence and Convergence	122
4.2 Limits	126
4.2.1 Continuous functions	128

Chapter 1

Group theory

Study of the simplest algebraic structure on a set.

1.1 Basic Definitions and Examples

1.1.1 Binary operations and groups

Definition 1. *Set* is a collection of distinct elements. Let G be a set.
Binary operation on G is a function

$$*: G \times G \rightarrow G \text{ (Closure is included)}$$

Example 2.

- $(\mathbb{N}, +), (\mathbb{Z}, +), (\mathbb{R}, \cdot)$
- $(\mathbb{N}, -)$ not a binary op. Not closed.
- $g, h \in G, g * h = h$
- Find a certain $c \in G$, define $g * h = c \forall g, h \in G$

Example 3. Cayley table: Draw a table of all the possible binary operations on a set. How many possible binary operations on a finite set with n elements? In general, there are ∞ -many binary operations. In this case, there are n^{n^2} possible binary operations. *In general, $g_i * g_j \neq g_j * g_i$ (Not commutative!)*

Definition 4. A binary operation $*$ on a set G is called associative if

$$(g * h) * k = g * (h * k) \quad \forall g, h, k \in G$$

Example 5.

- $+$ on $\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{R}$? Yes
- $-$ on \mathbb{R} ? No
- $g * h = g^h$ on \mathbb{N} ? No

Definition 6. A binary operation is called commutative if

$$\forall g, h \in G, g * h = h * g$$

Example 7.

- $+, \cdot$ on $\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$
- matrix multiplication ($AB \neq BA$ in general for A, B in $M(\mathbb{R}^n)$)
- let $g, h \in \mathbb{R}$, $g * h = 1 + g \cdot h$: commutative but *not associative!*

Definition 8. Let $(G, *)$ be a set. An element e is called *left identity* (respectively *right identity*) if:

$$e * g = g \text{ (resp. } g * e = g\text{)} \quad \forall g \in G$$

Caution: There might be *many* left/right identities or none.

Example 9.

1. let $(G, *)$ be a set with $g * h := g$. Find the left/right identities.
 ∞ -many (or equal to the number of elements) right identities since h satisfies definition $\forall h$. No left identities: wanted $e * g = g = e$ by definition of $*$ (*unless only one element*).
2. $(G, *), g * h = 1 + gh$. Ex: No right/left identities.

Idea: We want a good unique identity.

Theorem 10. let $(G, *)$ be set, such that $*$ has both a left identity e_1 and a right identity e_2 , then

$$e_1 = e_2 =: e \quad \text{and} \quad e \text{ is unique.}$$

Proof.

- $e_1 = e_2$

$$\Rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} e_1 * g = g \Rightarrow e_1 * e_2 = e_2 \\ g * e_2 = g \Rightarrow e_1 * e_2 = e_1 \end{array} \right\} \forall g \in G \Rightarrow e_1 = e_2$$

- Unicity: Assume there exists another identity e' .

$$\Rightarrow e' * g = g * e' = g$$

$$e' * g = e' * e = e$$

$$g * e' = e * e' = e'$$

Therefore

$$e = e'$$

□

As soon as you get one left and one right identity, you have a unique identity e .

Definition 11. let $(G, *)$ be a set. Let $g \in G$. An element $h \in G$ is called left (resp. right) inverse if

$$h * g = e \text{ (resp. } g * h = e)$$

Caution: Again inverses might not exist, there might be many, or *not* the same on both sides.

Example 12.

- (1) (\mathbb{N}, \cdot) 1 has an inverse, otherwise *no* inverse.
- (2) Find a binary operation on a set of 4 elements with left/right inverses not the same but identity e .

Theorem 13. Let $(G, *)$ be a set with associative binary operation and identity e . Then if h_1 is left inverse, and h_2 is right inverse, then

$$h_1 = h_2 = g^{-1} \text{ and it is unique}$$

Proof.

- $h_1 = h_2$

$h_1 * g = e, g * h_2 = e$. Therefore

$$h_2 = e * h_2 = (h_1 * g) * h_2 = h_1 * (g * h_2) = h_1$$

- unicity: Assume $\exists g'^{-1}$ another inverse.

$$g'^{-1} = e * g'^{-1} = (g^{-1} * g) * g'^{-1} = g^{-1} * (g * g'^{-1}) = g^{-1} * e = g^{-1}$$

□

(Group) Definition 14. A set $(G, *)$ with binary operation $*$ is called a *group* if:

- (1) $*$ is associative
- (2) $\exists e \in G$ an identity $\forall g \in G$
- (3) All elements $g \in G$ have an inverse g^{-1}

Attention: The identity and inverses are *unique* by our previous results.

Example 15.

- $(\mathbb{Z}, +), (\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$ (will see this later) are groups.
- $(\mathbb{N}, +)$ not a group \Rightarrow no inverses.
- (\mathbb{C}, \cdot) not a group (0 has no multiplicative inverse), but (\mathbb{C}^*, \cdot) is. ($\mathbb{C}^* = \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$)
- $(G = \{e\}, *)$ with $e * e = e$ is a group called the *trivial group*.
- Empty set \emptyset is not a group (No identity element.)

Definition 16. Let G be a group. It is called finite if it has finitely many elements.

Notation: $|G| = n$ (number of elements)

We say that G has **order** n . If $|G| = \infty$, the G is called an infinite group.

Example 17.

- the trivial group is finite, $|G| = 1$
- let $G = \{1, -1, i, -i\} \subset \mathbb{C}$, with $* = \cdot$. Is it a group? Yes. Check associativity, identity, and inverses.

(Abelian Group) Definition 18. A group is called *Abelian* if $*$ is commutative.

Example 19.

- previous example, trivial group, $(\mathbb{Z}, +), (\mathbb{C}^*, \cdot)$
- let $GL(\mathbb{R}^n)$ be the set of all invertible $n \times n$ matrices, $* =$ matrix multiplication. It is associative: $(AB)C = A(BC)$; It has identity: I_n . It has inverses: yes since we asked for it. So this is a group of matrices. But this is not Abelian since $AB \neq BA$.
- let G be the set of *invertible* functions with $* = \circ$, the composition of functions. Identity is $F(x) = x$; they are associative, invertible, but *not Abelian*.

1.1.2 Consequences of the axioms of group

Theorem 20. Let $(G, *)$ be a group, $g, h \in G$. Then

$$(g * h)^{-1} = h^{-1} * g^{-1}$$

Proof. To show: $(g * h) * (h^{-1} * g^{-1}) = e$.

Using associativity, we have

$$g * (h * h^{-1}) * g^{-1} = g * g^{-1} = e$$

□

Definition 21. Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, let $(G, *)$ be a group and let $g \in G$. Then we define g^n as follows:

$$g^n = \begin{cases} g * g * \cdots * g & n > 0 \\ g^{-1} * g^{-1} * \cdots * g^{-1} & n < 0 \\ e & n = 0 \end{cases}$$

where in the first case there are n copies of g in the product and in the second there are $-n$ copies of g^{-1} , so that $g^n = (g^{-1})^{-n}$.

Theorem 22. Let $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and let $G, *$ be a group. Then

1. $g^n * g^m = g^{n+m}$
2. $(g^n)^m = g^{nm}$

Proof. Exercise! (Hint: Induction.) □

1.1.3 Modular Arithmetic and the group \mathbb{Z}_n

Definition 23. let $n > 0$, $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ fixed, $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. a and b are called **congruent modulo n** if $n|a - b$.

Definition 24. $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$, $n > 0$ fixed in \mathbb{Z} :

- (1) $a \equiv a \pmod{n}$ (reflexivity)
- (2) If $a \equiv b \pmod{n} \iff b \equiv a \pmod{n}$ (symmetry)
- (3) if $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ and $b \equiv c \pmod{n} \implies a \equiv c \pmod{n}$ (transitivity)

Definition 25. Given a set S and an equivalence relation \sim on S , the **equivalence class** of an element a in S is the set $\{x \in S \mid x \sim a\}$.

Definition 26. Define the equivalence class of $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ in the relation of congruence modulo n as:

$$[a]_n := \{b \in \mathbb{Z} \mid b \equiv a \pmod{n}\}$$

Definition 27. Define equivalence classes \mathbb{Z}_n as

$$\mathbb{Z}_n := \{[0]_n, [1]_n, \dots, [n-1]_n\}$$

with 2 binary operations on \mathbb{Z}_n :

$$\begin{aligned} +: \mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_n &\rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n, ([a]_n, [b]_n) \mapsto [a+b]_n \\ \cdot: \mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_n &\rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n, ([a]_n, [b]_n) \mapsto [ab]_n \end{aligned}$$

As we can see from the following lemma, the two operations are well-defined.

Lemma 28. Let $a, a', b, b' \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $[a]_n = [a']_n, [b]_n = [b']_n$. Then $[a+b]_n = [a'+b']_n, [a \cdot b]_n = [a' \cdot b']_n$.

Proof. Exercise! □

Theorem 29. $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$ is an Abelian group.

Proof.

(1) Associativity:

$$\begin{aligned} ([a]_n + [b]_n) + [c]_n &= [a+b]_n + [c]_n \\ &= [a+b+c]_n \\ &= [a]_n + [b+c]_n \\ &= [a]_n + ([b]_n + [c]_n) \end{aligned}$$

(2) Commutativity:

$$\begin{aligned} [a]_n + [b]_n &= [a + b]_n \\ &= [b + a]_n \\ &= [b]_n + [a]_n \end{aligned}$$

(3) Identity element: $[0]_n$

(4) Inverse: Any element $[a]_n$ has an inverse $[-a]_n$.

□

Example 30. (\mathbb{Z}_n, \cdot) is an Abelian group?

Similary to above for associative, commutative, and identity.

Inverses:

Draw Caley table for (\mathbb{Z}_3, \cdot) . We realize that $[0]_3$ has no inverses. But $(\mathbb{Z}_3 \setminus \{[0]_3\}, \cdot)$ is.

Similarly, for (\mathbb{Z}_4, \cdot) , it does not have inverses for all classes.

Caution: In general (\mathbb{Z}_n, \cdot) is *not* a group. The idea then is to make it a group by removing non-invertible elements.

Lemma 31. The element $[a]_n \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ has an inverse $\iff (a, n) = 1$.

Proof. $(a, n) = 1 \iff \exists b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$, s.t $ab + cn = 1 \iff cn = 1 - ab \iff \exists [b]_n$ s.t. $[a]_n[b]_n = [1]_n$. □

Definition 32. $\mathbb{Z}_n^* := \{[a]_n \in \mathbb{Z}_n \mid \exists b \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ s.t. } [a]_n[b]_n = [1]_n\}$.

Theorem 33. (\mathbb{Z}_n^*, \cdot) is an Abelian group.

Proof. To Show: if $[a]_n, [b]_n \in (\mathbb{Z}_n^*, \cdot) \Rightarrow [a]_n \cdot [b]_n \in (\mathbb{Z}_n^*, \cdot)$.

$\Rightarrow (a, n) = (b, n) = 1 \Rightarrow (ab, n) = 1 \Rightarrow [ab]_n$ has inverse $[a]_n[b]_n$.

Alternatively: if g, h have inverse, $h^{-1}g^{-1}$ is inverse of gh . □

1.2 Cyclic groups

Definition 34. Let G be a group, $g \in G$. The **order** of g is the *smallest positive* integer $n > 0$ such that $g^n = e$.

Notation: $\text{ord } g = n$. If $n = \infty$, then g is called of infinite order.

Example 35. $G = (\mathbb{C}^*, \cdot)$, $\text{ord } (-1) = 2$, $\text{ord } i = 4$, $\text{ord } 2 = \infty$

Lemma 36. Let G be a finite group. Then every element $g \in G$ has finite orders.

Proof. Assume $g \in G$ has infinite orders. Write the list: g^0, g^1, g^2, \dots

Since $|G| = n < \infty$, there are two elements g^k, g^l s.t. $g^k = g^l$, $k > l$.
 $\iff g^k g^{-l} = e \iff g^{k-l} = e$.

But then $\text{ord } g \leq k - l < \infty$. □

Lemma 37. Let G be a group, $g \in G$, $\text{ord } g = n$. Then all elements $\{g_0, g_1, g_2, \dots, g^{n-1}\}$ are distinct.

Proof. Assume that $g^i = g^j$ for some $i, j, 0 \leq i \leq j \leq n - 1$. Then $g^{j-i} = g^0 = e$. Since $i < j, j - i < n$. Since n is smallest integer, s.t. $g^n = e$, contradicts with the condition. □

Corollary 38. If $|G| = n < \infty$, $g \in G$, then $\text{ord } g \leq n$.

Proof. Assume $\exists i \in \mathbb{Z}, i \geq n + 1$, s.t. $g^i = e$ where $g \in G$, i is the smallest such integer. By previous lemma, $\{g_0, g_1, g_2, \dots, g^{i-1}\}$ all distinct. There are i elements $i > n$. □

Definition 39. We call a group G **cyclic** if

$$\exists g \in G \text{ s.t. } G = \{g^n | n \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

g is called a **generator**.

Example 40.

- $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$. $2 = 1^2 = 1 + 1$, $n = 1^n$.
- $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$, generator $[1]_n$.
- $\{\pm 1, \pm i\}$, generator $\pm i$.

Lemma 41. All cyclic groups are Abelian.

Proof. To show: $\forall h, k \in G, h \cdot k = k \cdot h$.

$$\begin{aligned} G \text{ is cyclic} &\Rightarrow G = \{g^n | n \in \mathbb{Z}\} \text{ for some generators } g \in G \Rightarrow h = g^i, k = g^j. \\ \Rightarrow h \cdot k &= g^i \cdot g^j = g^{i+j} = g^{j+i} = g^j \cdot g^i = k \cdot h. \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

Warning: The converse is not true (Abelian does not imply cyclic) One counter example is $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$. Assume \mathbb{Q} is cyclic under $+$.

$$\Rightarrow \exists g \in \mathbb{Q} \text{ s.t. } q = g^n (= ng) \forall q \in \mathbb{Q}.$$

Take $\frac{g}{2}$ ($\in \mathbb{Q}$ since $g \in \mathbb{Q}$)

$$\Rightarrow \frac{g}{2} = ng \text{ for some } n \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

contradicting with original statements.

Lemma 42. Let G be a finite group, $|G| = n$. So

$$G \text{ is cyclic} \iff G \text{ contains an element of order } n$$

Proof.

“ \Rightarrow ”: G is cyclic $\Rightarrow G$ has generator g . Assume $\text{ord } g = k$, so

$$\{g^0, \dots, g^{k-1}\} \text{ are distinct.}$$

$\Rightarrow k = n$ since $|G| = n$.

“ \Leftarrow ”: Let assume $\exists g \in G, \text{ord } g = n$.

$$\Rightarrow \{g^0, g^1, \dots, g^{n-1}\} \text{ are all distinct.}$$

But $|G| = n$, hence g generates all the group. \square

Lemma 43. Let G be a finite group. Then if G is cyclic, it has at most one element of order 2.

Proof. Since G is finite ($|G| = n$), and cyclic, $\exists g \in G$ of order n ($g^n = e$), and $G = \{g^0, g^1, \dots, g^{n-1}\}$. Assume \exists an element of order 2: $h = g^i$, ($i \geq 0, i \in \mathbb{Z}$), then

$$(g^i)^2 = e = g^{2i} \Rightarrow 2i = n \Rightarrow \begin{cases} n \text{ is even: exactly one element,} \\ n \text{ is odd: no element of order 2.} \end{cases}$$

□

Example 44. Are (\mathbb{Z}_5^*, \cdot) , $(\mathbb{Z}_{15}^*, \cdot)$ cyclic? (Recall that the notation $\mathbb{Z}^* = \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$, and \mathbb{Z}_n^* = set of all invertible congruence classes $[a]_n$.)

Hint: Use the previous lemma, or find out the generator.

1.3 Symmetric groups

1.3.1 Permutations

Definition 45. A function f from a set X to a set Y is called

- **one-to-one** or **injective** if $f(x_1) = f(x_2) \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2 \forall x_1, x_2 \in X$.
- **onto** or **surjective** if $\forall y \in Y, \exists x \in X$ s.t. $f(x) = y$.
- a **bijection** if it is both *injective* and *surjective*.

Furthermore, f is a bijection iff there is an inverse function $g : Y \mapsto X$ s.t. $g \circ f$ is the identity function on X and $f \circ g$ is the identity function on Y .

Definition 46. A *permutation* is a bijective function:

$$\sigma : \{1, 2, \dots, n\} \mapsto \{1, 2, \dots, n\}.$$

Notation: We write the permutation as *two-row notation*: we write down the numbers 1 to n , and underneath each number i we write down the number that σ sends i to:

$$\begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 2 & \cdots & n \\ \sigma(1) & \sigma(2) & \cdots & \sigma(n) \end{array}$$

Because σ is a bijection, the bottom row of the table consists of the numbers 1, 2, ..., n in some order. So a permutation is a ‘re-ordering’ of the numbers 1 to n .

Definition 47. The set of all permutations $S_n := \{\sigma : \{1, 2, \dots, n\} \mapsto \{1, 2, \dots, n\}\}$ is called the *symmetric group* (on n symbols).

Theorem 48. The set (S_n, \circ) is a group.

Proof.

- Closure: Let $\nu, \tau \in S_n$, then ν, τ are bijective by definition, so are $\tau \circ \nu$ and $\nu \circ \tau$.
- Associativity: composition of functions is associative.
- Identity: identity $\nu(h) = k \forall h \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.
- Inverses: By definition: bijections $\iff \exists$ inverses!

□

Theorem 49. (S_n, \circ) is not Abelian.

Proof. Exercise! □

Proposition 50. $|S_n| = n!$

Proof. Exercise! □

1.3.2 Cycle

Definition 51. A permutation is called a *cycle* if there is a sequence $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k\}$ of distinct numbers s.t.

$$\sigma(a_1) = a_2, \quad \sigma(a_2) = a_3, \quad \dots, \quad \sigma(a_{k-1}) = a_k, \quad \sigma(a_k) = a_1$$

and $\sigma(i) = i$ for any other i not in the sequence. The number k is called the *length* of the cycle, and we often abbreviate ‘cycle of length k ’ to ‘ k -cycle’.

Example 52.

$$\nu = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 & 4 \end{vmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \tau = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 1 & 4 & 3 \end{vmatrix}$$

ν is a 3-cycle, it rotates the numbers 1, 2, 3 and fixes 4. τ is not a cycle: no numbers are fixed, so if it was a cycle it would have to be 4-cycle, but it is not.

Proposition 53. The order of a k -cycle is k .

Proof. We know immediately that $\sigma^k = \text{id}$ by definition. $\Rightarrow \text{ord } \sigma \leq k$.

Assume that $\text{ord } \sigma = i < k$. But by definition of $\sigma^i(a_1) = a_{i+1} \neq a_1$. \square

Notation of a k -cycle: (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k) . This means sending $a_1 \mapsto a_2 \mapsto a_3 \mapsto \dots \mapsto a_k \mapsto a_1$ and fixes all other elements. This only makes sense if the numbers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k are all distinct (or this permutation would not be a cycle).

Example 54. From the previous example, we would write the 3-cycle ν as $(1, 2, 3)$.

Note:

- (1) There are several different ways of writing the same cycle, for instance $(1, 2, 3), (2, 3, 1), (3, 1, 2)$ are all the same. The usual convention is to put the smallest number first.

- (2) A cycle of length one has to be the identity permutation. So the 1-cycles (1) , (3) , (42) , all denote the identity. The usual convention is to use (1) , and this makes sense in any S_n .
- (3) Cycles make sense if all elements are distinct.

Example 55. The permutation $\tau \in S_4$ from the second previous example is not a cycle, but it is easy to see that it can be expressed as the composition

$$\tau = (3, 4)(1, 2)$$

of two 2-cycles.

Definition 56. Two cycles $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k), (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_m)$ are **disjoint** if no a_i is equal to any b_j .

Theorem 57. Disjoint cycles commute if the two cycles are disjoint, i.e. if α, β are disjoint cycles of the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, then $\alpha \circ \beta = \beta \circ \alpha$.

Proof. Exercise! □

Lemma 58. Let $\sigma \in S^n$ be a permutation.

1. For any $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, there is a positive integer d such that $\sigma^d(i) = i$. (In fact, such smallest $d \in [1, n]$.)
2. If d is the smallest positive integer such that $\sigma^d(i) = i$, then the numbers $i, \sigma(i), \sigma^2(i), \dots, \sigma^{d-1}(i)$ are all distinct.
3. If $j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ is not in the set $\{i, \sigma(i), \dots, \sigma^{d-1}(i)\}$, then neither is $\sigma(j)$.

Proof. Exercise! □

Proposition 59. Any permutation can be expressed as a product of some number of disjoint cycles.

Proof. The proof is given by an explicit algorithm. Pick any $\sigma \in S_n$. Then pick any number $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$. By the previous lemma, there is an integer d such that $\sigma^d(i) = i$. Take the smallest such d , and also by previous lemma that $i, \sigma(i), \dots, \sigma^{d-1}(i)$ are all distinct, we can then form the cycle

$$(i, \sigma(i), \dots, \sigma^{d-1}(i))$$

Repeat the above process by choosing an element which does not occur in the cycle until all numbers are in one of the cycles. The permutation σ will be the product of our list of cycles. \square

Definition 60. When σ is factored into disjoint cycles $\gamma_1 \gamma_2 \dots \gamma_r$ we can record the lengths (k_1, k_2, \dots, k_r) of the cycles that occur, and the list is called the *cycle-type* of σ .

Example 61. Factor and find the cycle-type of

$$\sigma = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 4 & 1 & 3 & 2 & 6 & 7 & 5 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Answer: $\sigma = (1, 4, 2)(5, 6, 7)$, and the cycle-type of σ is $(3, 3)$. (We can leave out the 1's from the list, they are not important.)

1.4 subgroup

Definition 62. Let $(G, *)$ be a group. $H \subseteq G$ a subset. Then H is called a subgroup of G if:

1. $\forall g, h \in H, g * h \in H$. (Closure)
2. $e \in G$ is also in H . (identity element)
3. $g \in H \Rightarrow g^{-1} \in H$. (inverses)

Note: We can replace (2) with (2') $H \neq \emptyset$.

Proof. $H \neq \emptyset \iff \exists h \in H \Rightarrow h^{-1} \in H \Rightarrow h * h^{-1} = e \in H$. □

Notation: $H \leq G$ means H is a subgroup of G . v.s. \subseteq .

Example 63. • $(\mathbb{Z}, +) \leq (\mathbb{Q}, +) \leq (\mathbb{R}, +) \leq (\mathbb{C}, +)$.

- $n\mathbb{Z} := (\{nz | z \in \mathbb{Z}\}, +) \leq (\mathbb{Z}, +)$.
- Any group has two immediate subgroup: $(G, *) \leq (G, *)$, and $(\{e\}, *)$ trivial subgroup. If $H \leq G$, $H \neq G$, G is called *proper*; if $H \neq \{e\}$, H is called *non-trivial*.

Proposition 64. Let $(G, *)$ be a group, $H \subseteq G$, $H \neq \emptyset$. Then if $\forall x, y \in H, x * y^{-1} \in H \Rightarrow H \leq G$.

Proof. To show: H is subgroup.

1. $H \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow \exists x \in H$, take $y = x$ (by assumption) $\Rightarrow x * y^{-1} = x * x^{-1} = e \in H$.
2. Inverse: Assume $x \in H$, set $y = x$, and the other as the identity: (by assumption) $\Rightarrow e * x^{-1} = x^{-1} \in H$.
3. Closure: Take $x, y \in H$, we know that by the previous point, $y^{-1} \in H$. By assumption, $x * (y^{-1})^{-1} = x * y \in H$.

□

Example 65. Show that $H = \{\sigma \in S_n | \sigma(1) = 1\} \leq S_n$ using subgroup test.

- $H \neq \emptyset$ since $\text{id}(i) = i \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\} \Rightarrow \text{id}(1) = 1$, hence $\text{id} \in H$.
- Take $\sigma, \tau \in H$. To show $\sigma \circ \tau^{-1} \in H \iff \sigma \circ \tau^{-1}(1) = 1 \Rightarrow \sigma(1) = 1$. Therefore $\sigma \circ \tau^{-1} \in H \leq S_n$.

Definition 66. Let $(G, *)$ be a group, $g \in G$, $\langle g \rangle = \{g^i | i \in \mathbb{Z}\}$. Then $\langle g \rangle$ is called the **cyclic subgroup** of G generated by g .

Proposition 67. $\langle g \rangle \leq G$.

Proof. Subgroup test:

- To show $\langle g \rangle \neq \emptyset$.
- Pick $x, y \in \langle g \rangle \Rightarrow x = g^i, y = g^j$. Now $x * y^{-1} = g^i g^{-j} \in \langle g \rangle$.

□

Lemma 68. If $\text{ord } g = n$, then $|\langle g \rangle| = n$.

Proof. $\text{ord } g = n \Rightarrow \{g^0, g^1, g^2, \dots, g^{n-1}\}$ all distinct. $\Rightarrow |\langle g \rangle| \geq n$. To show $|\langle g \rangle| = n$. Take $i \in \mathbb{Z}, i \geq n$. By the Euclidean algorithm: $i = qn + r$ for some $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}, 0 \leq r < n$. Now any element $g^i = g^{qn+r} = g^{qn} \cdot g^r = eg^r = g^r$. So any element of $\langle g \rangle$ is one of the list $\{g^0, g^1, \dots, g^{n-1}\} \Rightarrow |\langle g \rangle| = n$. □

Example 69.

$$\sigma = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \in S_3$$

So $\text{ord } \sigma = 3$. $\langle \sigma \rangle = \{e, (1, 2, 3), (1, 3, 2)\}$.

1.5 Cosets and Lagrange Theorem

Definition 70. Let $(G, *)$ be a group. $H \leq G, g \in G$.

- The **left coset** of H by g is $gH := \{gh | h \in H\}$.
- Similarly, the **right coset** of H by g is $Hg := \{hg | h \in H\}$.

Notation: Set of left cosets: $G : H := \{gH | g \in G\}$. Set of right cosets: $H : G := \{Hg | g \in G\}$.

Warning: If G is Abelian, $gH = Hg \forall g$.

Example 71. Take again: $\langle (1, 2, 3) \rangle \leq S_3$. Compute the left and right coset of $(1, 2)$ and $(2, 3)$.

Proposition 72. Let $(G, *)$ be a group, $H \leq G$, $g_1, g_2 \in G$. Then $g_1H = g_2H \iff g_2 \in g_1H$.

Proof.

- “ \Rightarrow ”

Assume $g_1H = g_2H$, $e \in H \Rightarrow g_2e \in g_2H = g_1H$.

- “ \Leftarrow ”

$g_2 \in g_1H \iff \exists h \in H \text{ s.t. } g_2 = g_1h$.

First $g_1H \leq g_2H$. An element of g_1H is of the form g_1h_1 for $h_1 \in H$.

$$\Rightarrow g_1h_1 = (g_2h^{-1})h_1 = g_2(h^{-1}h_1) \in g_2H.$$

Now $g_2H \leq g_1H$.

Any element of g_2H is of the form $g_2h_2 = (g_1h)h_2 = g_1(hh_2) \in g_1H$.

□

Corollary 73. Every element $g \in G$ lies in exactly one of the left cosets of H .

Proof. Exercise!

□

Definition 74. The left cosets form a **partition** of G , they are a collection of subsets $g_1H, g_2H, \dots \subset G$ such that

$$G = \bigcup g_iH$$

and the intersection of any two of these subsets is empty.

Example 75. Consider the group $(\mathbb{Z}_6, +)$, and the cyclic subgroup

$$H = \langle [3] \rangle = \{[0], [3]\}.$$

The cosets of H are

$$[0] + H = H = \{[0], [3]\} = [3] + H$$

$$[1] + H = \{[1], [4]\} = [4] + H$$

$$[2] + H = \{[2], [5]\} = [5] + H$$

This group is Abelian so there is no distinction between left and right cosets. Notice that all three cosets have the same size.

Lemma 76. Let G be a group and let $H \leq G$ be finite. Then all left cosets of H have the same size, i.e.

$$\#gH = |H| \quad \forall g \in G.$$

Proof. Exercise! (Hint: bijection!) □

(Lagrange) Theorem 77. Let G be a finite group and $H \leq G$, then

$$|G| = |H| \cdot |G : H|,$$

in particular the order of H divides the order of G .

Corollary 78. Let G be a finite group and let $g \in G$. Then $\text{ord } g \mid |G|$.

Proof. Exercise! □

Extension: if $g \in G$ is any element of a finite group, then

$$g^{|G|} = e.$$

Corollary 79. Let G be a finite group of size p , where p is a prime number. Then G is cyclic.

Proof. Exercise! □

(Fermat's Little Theorem) Corollary 80. Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and let p be a prime number. If $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod p$ then

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod p.$$

Proof. Exercise! (Hint: Use (\mathbb{Z}_p^*, \times) together with Lagrange theorem.) (Reminder: \mathbb{Z}_p^* means invertible set of equivalence classes of p .) □

1.6 Future Direction of Study in Group Theory

1. “Normal Subgroup” → “Simple Group”
2. number of subgroups in a group → “Sylow theorems” → “Galois Theory”
3. study of symmetries → “Lie Groups”

Chapter 2

Applied Mathematical Methods

2.1 Differential Equations

2.1.1 Definitions and examples

Definition 81. An *ordinary differential equation* (ODE) for $y(x)$ is an equation involving derivatives of y .

$$f(x, y, \frac{dy}{dx}, \frac{d^2y}{dx^2}, \dots, \frac{d^n y}{dx^n}) = 0 \quad (2.1)$$

$$\frac{d^n y}{dx^n} = F(x, y, \frac{dy}{dx}, \dots, \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}})$$

and we seek a solution (or solutions) for $y(x)$ satisfying the equations. (If there are more independent variables then we have a partial differential equation (PDE).)

Definition 82.

Order is the order of the highest derivative present.

Degree is the power of the highest derivative when fractional powers have been removed.

Linear differential equation is a differential equation that is defined by a *linear polynomial* in the unknown function and its derivative in each term of equation(2.1).

Example 83.

- (a) Particle moving along a line with a given force $\rightarrow x(t)$ position as function of time t .

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = f\left(t, x, \frac{dx}{dt}\right)$$

e.g.

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = -\omega^2 x - 2k \frac{dx}{dt}$$

The first term is regarding the restoring force, while the second term is regarding the damping/friction. The function is of order 2, degree 1, and linear.

- (b) Radius of curvature of a curve

It can be shown that

$$R(x, y) = \frac{\left[1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2\right]^{\frac{3}{2}}}{\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}}$$

The function is of order 2 and degree 2.

- (c) Simple growth and decay

$$\frac{dQ}{dt} = kQ$$

The function is of order 1, degree 1, and linear. e.g.

- (1) $k > 0$. Q as the quantity of money, and $k = (1 + \frac{r}{100})$, and r being the rate of interest.
- (2) $k < 0$. Q as the amount of radioactive material, and k as the decay rate.

Hence, obviously $Q(t) = Q_0 e^{kt}$ where $Q_0 = Q(0)$ at $t = 0$.

- (d) Population dynamics

$P(t)$ as population over time and $F(t)$ as food over time, with

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = aP \quad (a > 0) \tag{2.2}$$

$$\frac{dF}{dt} = c(c > 0)$$

These two equations form a linear system, with both being of order 1, degree 1.

So $P(t) = P_0 e^{at}$, $F(t) = ct + F_0$. Misery! Population outgrows food supply.

Pierre Verhulst (1845) replaced a in equation(2.2) with $(a - bP)$ so that growth decreases as P increases:

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = aP - bP^2 \quad (2.3)$$

This is in fact a *logistic ODE*, with order 1, degree 1, and nonlinear.

Note: Equation(2.3) is *separable*. Alternatively we can note that equation(2.3) is an example of a *Bernoulli differential equation*

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + F(x)y = H(x)y^n \quad (2.4)$$

with $n \neq 0, 1$ Substitution on $z(x) = (y(x))^{1-n} \Rightarrow$ a *linear* equation for $z(x) \rightarrow$ solution. (See below)

(e) Predator-Prey System

$x(t)$ as prey and $y(t)$ as predators, we have

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = ax - bxy, \quad \frac{dy}{dt} = -cy + dxy \quad (2.5)$$

Note: Equation(2.5) is *separable* when written in principle

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{\frac{dy}{dt}}{\frac{dx}{dt}} = \frac{-cy + dxy}{ax - bxy} \Rightarrow y(x) \Rightarrow x(t), y(t)$$

This is of order 1, degree 1, and a nonlinear system.

(f) Combat Model System

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -ay, \quad \frac{dy}{dt} = -bx \quad (2.6)$$

This is of order 1, degree 1, and linear system.

Note: Again equation(2.6) is *separable* when written as $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{bx}{ay} \Rightarrow y(x) \Rightarrow x(t), y(t)$

In general the solution of a differential equation of order n contains a number n of *arbitrary constants*. This general solution can be specialised to a particular solution by assigninig definite values to these constants.

Example 84.

- (a) Family or parabolae $y = Cx^2$ as constant C takes different values.

On a particular curve of the family $\frac{dy}{dx} = 2Cx$. By substitutiion, eliminate $C \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{2y}{x}$. This is a geometrical statement about slopes.

Note: 1st order differential equation \leftrightarrow 1 arbitrary constant in general solution.

- (b)

$$\left. \begin{aligned} x &= A \sin \omega t + B \cos \omega t \\ \frac{dx}{dt} &= A\omega \cos \omega t - B\omega \sin \omega t \\ \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} &= -A\omega^2 \sin \omega t - B\omega^2 \cos \omega t \end{aligned} \right\} \Rightarrow \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + \omega^2 x = 0$$

Note: 2nd order differential equation \leftrightarrow 2 arbitrary constants in general solution.

Of course it's the reverse of this process we normally want to perform in order to get the general solution. We then often need a particular solution — which satisfies certain other conditions — *boundary* or *initial condition*. These allow us to find the arbitrary constants in the solutions.

2.1.2 First Order Differential Equations

Properties and approaches

There are essentially 4 types we can solve *analytically*:

- *separable*
- *homogeneous*
- *linear*
- *exact* (in Chapter “Partial Differentiation and Multivariable Calculus” later)

Let's look at them one by one:

(a) Separable

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = G(x) \cdot H(y)$$

Solve by rearrangement and integration

$$\int^y \frac{dy}{H(y)} = \int^x G(x)dx$$

E.g.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{dx} &= xy^2 e^{-x} \\ \int \frac{1}{y^2} dy &= \int xe^{-x} dx \\ -\frac{1}{y} &= -xe^{-x} - e^{-x} + C \end{aligned}$$

Or singular solution $y = 0$.

If we want the particular solution which passes through $x = 1, y = 1$, then of course we need

$$C = -1 + 2e^{-1} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{y} = (x+1)e^{-x} + 1 - 2e^{-1}$$

(b) Homogeneous

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$$

Substitution $\frac{y}{x} = u(x)$, i.e. a new dependent variable,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{dx} &= u + x \frac{du}{dx} (= f(u)) \quad (\text{Remember!}) \\ f(u) - u &= \frac{x du}{dx} \\ \int \frac{du}{f(u) - u} &= \int \frac{dx}{x} \\ &\vdots \end{aligned}$$

E.g.

(i)

$$\begin{aligned}x^2 \frac{dy}{dx} + xy - y^2 &= 0 \\ \frac{dy}{dx} &= \left(\frac{y}{x}\right)^2 - \frac{y}{x} \\ \frac{du}{dx} &= \frac{u^2 - 2u}{x} \\ &\vdots\end{aligned}$$

(ii)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{x+y-3}{x-y+1}$$

This does not look homogeneous as it stands, but can be made so by substituting $x = 1 + X$, $y = 2 + Y$, and the expression becomes

$$\frac{dY}{dX} = \frac{X+Y}{X-Y} = \frac{1 + \left(\frac{Y}{X}\right)}{1 - \left(\frac{Y}{X}\right)}$$

Then let $\frac{Y}{X} = u(X)$,

$$\Rightarrow \int \left(\frac{1-u}{1+u^2} \right) du = \int \frac{dX}{X}$$

Eventually, the equation becomes

$$\begin{aligned}\tan^{-1} \frac{Y}{X} - \frac{1}{2} \ln \left(1 + \frac{Y^2}{X^2} \right) &= \ln X + C \\ \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{y-2}{x-1} \right) - \frac{1}{2} \ln [(x-1)^2 + (y-2)^2] &= C\end{aligned}$$

Note: If we have e.g. $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{x+y-3}{2(x+y)-7}$, then substitute $v(x) = x + y$ will work!

(c) **Linear**

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + F(x)y = G(x)$$

1st power only for y and $\frac{dy}{dx}$. We apply an *integrating factor* $R(x)$:

$$R(x) = \exp \left[\int^x F(x) dx \right]$$

This allows us to form the expression

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left[y \exp \left(\int^x F(x) dx \right) \right] = G(x) \exp \left(\int^x F(x) dx \right)$$

and then integrate...

E.g.

$$\begin{aligned} (x+2) \frac{dy}{dx} - 4y &= (x+2)^6 \\ \frac{dy}{dx} - \frac{4}{x+2} &= (x+2)^5 \\ \Rightarrow F(x) &= -\frac{4}{x+2}, G(x) = (x+2)^5 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$R(x) = \exp \left[- \int^x \left(\frac{4}{x+2} \right) dx \right] = \dots = K(x+2)^{-4}$$

Subsequently, take $K = 1$ W.L.O.G.:

$$(x+2)^{-4} \frac{dy}{dx} - 4(x+2)^{-5}y = \frac{d}{dx} [y(x+2)^{-4}] = x+2$$

As such,

$$y(x+2)^{-4} = \frac{1}{2}x^2 + 2x + C \quad (\text{Put } C \text{ at the right time!})$$

$$y(x) = \left(\frac{1}{2}x^{2+2x+C} \right) (x+2)^4$$

(So e.g. $y(0) = 8 \Rightarrow C = \frac{1}{2}$)

Novelties!

(i) Bernoulli equation (See Equation(2.4))

A nonlinear equation rendered linear by a substitution $u = y^{1-n} \dots$

(ii) E.g.

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{x+e^y}$$

It is nonlinear for $y(x)$ but linear for $x(y)$:

$$\frac{dx}{dy} - x = e^y \Rightarrow \dots$$

2.1.3 ‘Special’ Second Order Differential Equations

Definition 85. General Explicit form is

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = F\left(x, y, \frac{dy}{dx}\right)$$

(a) $y, \frac{dy}{dx}$ missing, i.e.

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = f(x)$$

Just integrate twice!

(b) $x, \frac{dy}{dx}$ missing, i.e.

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = f(y)$$

Warning: Do not write $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{1}{\frac{d^2x}{dy^2}}$. However, it may be true, but for what class of functions $y(x)$?

Let $\frac{dy}{dx} = p$,

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{dp}{dx} = \frac{dp}{dy} \cdot \frac{dy}{dx} = p \frac{dp}{dy} = \frac{d}{dy} \left(\frac{1}{2} p^2 \right)$$

This substitution is effective because it eliminates x , so that the equation becomes separable for p and y .

Then we can integrate $\frac{d}{dy} \left(\frac{1}{2} p^2 \right) = f(y)$ w.r.t. y to get $p(y)$. Then using the definition of p ,

$$x = \int \frac{dy}{p(y)}$$

The same is obtained by multiplying the original equation by $\frac{dy}{dx}$ and recognizing $\frac{dy}{dx} \cdot \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)^2 \right]$

Example:

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = -\omega^2 y$$

with ω being a real constant. (It is a simple harmonic motion.)

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} p^2 = -\frac{1}{2} \omega^2 y^2 + C$$

Let $C = \frac{1}{2}\omega^2\bar{A}^2$. We therefore get

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{p} &= \frac{dx}{dy} = \pm \frac{1}{\omega(\bar{A}^2 - y^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \\ \Rightarrow \omega x + \bar{B} &= \pm \sin^{-1} \frac{y}{\bar{A}} \\ y &= \bar{A} \sin(\omega x + \bar{B}) \text{ W.L.O.G} \\ &= A \sin \omega x + B \cos \omega x\end{aligned}$$

(c) **y missing**, i.e.

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = f\left(x, \frac{dy}{dx}\right)$$

We put $\frac{dy}{dx} = p$, so

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{dp}{dx} = f(x, p)$$

i.e. First order $p(x)$. This substitution is effective because it eliminates y , so that the equation becomes separable for p and x .

Solve for $p(x)$ then integrate $\Rightarrow y(x)$.

Example: Radius of curvature

$$\frac{\left[1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2\right]^{\frac{3}{2}}}{\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}} = a \quad (a \text{ is an arbitrary constant})$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Rightarrow \frac{dp}{dx} &= \frac{1}{a}(1 + p^2)^{\frac{3}{2}} \\ \Rightarrow \frac{x}{a} + C &= \int \frac{dp}{(1 + p^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}} \quad \text{i.e.} \quad \frac{x}{a} - \frac{A}{a} = \frac{p}{(1 + p^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \\ \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} &= p = \pm \frac{x - A}{[a^2 - (x - A)^2]^{\frac{1}{2}}}\end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow y = B \mp [a^2 - (x - A)^2]^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad \text{i.e.} \quad (x - A)^2 + (y - B)^2 = a^2$$

So they are all circles of radius a !

(d) **x missing**, i.e.

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = f\left(y, \frac{dy}{dx}\right)$$

Yet again, let $\frac{dy}{dx} = p$, so

$$p \frac{dp}{dy} = f(y, p)$$

i.e. First order $p(y)$. So we solve for $p(y)$, then find $x = \int \frac{dy}{p(y)}$.

Example:

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = -\omega^2 y \mp 2k \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)^2$$

SHM with resistance proportional to (speed)².

Hint: Solving this equation is the perfect application for solving Bernoulli Equation!

(e) **Linear Equations**, i.e. $y, \frac{dy}{dx}$ only occur to 1st power, if at all. So no products of y and $\frac{dy}{dx}$. The following section is dedicated to explaining the approach to solve linear differential equations.

General case — Linear Equations

The general form is, for order n ,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}y &= a_0(x) \frac{d^n y}{dx^n} + a_1(x) \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} + a_2(x) \frac{d^{n-2} y}{dx^{n-2}} + \cdots \\ &\quad + a_{n-1}(x) \frac{dy}{dx} + a_n(x)y = f(x) \end{aligned} \tag{2.7}$$

where a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n and $f(x)$ are known functions of x only.

\mathcal{L} is a **linear operator**, operating on $y(x)$:

$$\mathcal{L} \equiv \left[a_0 \frac{d^n}{dx^n} + a_1 \frac{d^{n-1}}{dx^{n-1}} + \cdots + a_n \right]$$

The equation(2.7) is called **homogeneous** iff $f(x) = 0$ and **inhomogeneous** iff $f(x) \neq 0$.

The homogeneous equation $\mathcal{L}y = 0$ has n independent solutions $y_1(x), y_2(x), \dots$

$\dots, y_n(x)$ apart from *trivial* $y(x) = 0$. That is to say that $\mathcal{L}y_i(x) = 0$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$. (**Independence** is an algebraic property...) Because of the linearity of $y_i(x)$ we find that the most general solution of the homogeneous equation $\mathcal{L}y = 0$ is given by

$$y(x) = A_1y_1(x) + A_2y_2(x) + \dots + A_ny_n(x) \quad (2.8)$$

with A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n being arbitrary constants. This is because

$$\mathcal{L}y = \mathcal{L}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n A_iy_i(x)\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n A_i(\mathcal{L}y_i(x)) = 0$$

Of course equation(2.8) contains n arbitrary constants in accord with the order n of the differential equation.

For the inhomogeneous equation ($\mathcal{L}y = f(x)$ (2.7)), the expression(2.8) is called the **complementary functions** (CF) of equation(2.7). Any solution of the inhomogeneous equation(2.7), say $Y(x)$, is called a **particular integral** (PI) of equation(2.7). The most general solution of equation(2.7) is thus

$$y(x) = (\text{CF}) + (\text{PI})$$

This contains n arbitrary constants as required/expected!

The constants can be specified in practice to produce a particular solution which satisfies (n) initial/boundary conditions.

Note

- (a) For any two solutions $Y_1(x), Y_2(x)$ of equation(2.7), their difference satisfies

$$\mathcal{L}(Y_1 - Y_2) = \mathcal{L}Y_1 - \mathcal{L}Y_2 = f(x) - f(x) = 0$$

- (b) Generally, finding $y_1(x), y_2(x), \dots, y_n(x)$ functions might be very tough — our differential equation has generally variable coefficients after all! So we look at the most common case we need to study — constant coefficients! W.L.O.G.:

$$a_0(x) = 1, a_1(x) = a_1, a_2(x) = a_2, \dots, a_n(x) = a_n$$

Linear Equations — Second Order, Constant Coefficients

Consider

$$\mathcal{L}y = \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + a_1 \frac{dy}{dx} + a_2 y = f(x) \quad (2.9)$$

Alternatively, in terms of notation,

$$\mathcal{L}y = y'' + a_1 y' + a_2 y = f(x)$$

Overall flow of solving the equation is to firstly find CF then PI,

$$\Rightarrow y(x) = \text{CF} + \text{PI}$$

Finding the CF We need to solve

$$\mathcal{L}y = \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + a_1 \frac{dy}{dx} + a_2 y = 0 \quad (2.10)$$

Try a solution of the form $y = e^{\lambda x}$ where λ is a constant — which we need to find! (It works by demonstration.) Evidently,

$$(\lambda^2 + a_1\lambda + a_2)e^{\lambda x} = 0$$

The exponential cannot help — for any λ let alone for all x . So

$$\lambda^2 + a_1\lambda + a_2 = 0 \quad (2.11)$$

as the auxiliary equations. In general, there are two distinct roots λ_1, λ_2 of this quadratic, so that $e^{\lambda_1 x}, e^{\lambda_2 x}$ are solutions of equation(2.10), i.e.

$$\mathcal{L}(e^{\lambda_1 x}) = 0 = \mathcal{L}(e^{\lambda_2 x})$$

Because of the linearity property of \mathcal{L} we have

$$y_{\text{CF}} = A_1 e^{\lambda_1 x} + A_2 e^{\lambda_2 x}$$

where A_1, A_2 are two arbitrary constants and $\mathcal{L}y_{\text{CF}} = 0$ as required.

If the roots of (2.11) are equal, i.e. $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda$, then certainly $A_1 e^{\lambda x}$ is a solution of (2.10) with *one* arbitrary constant — we need *another!* A second linearly independent solution is given by $A_2 x e^{\lambda x}$, so that we have

$$y_{\text{CF}} = A_1 e^{\lambda x} + A_2 x e^{\lambda x}$$

We can see this easily: (2.11) must take the form $(\lambda + \frac{a_1}{2})^2 = 0$ since $a_2 = \frac{a_1^2}{4}$ and $\lambda = -\frac{a_1}{2}$ (repeated root). Then substituting $xe^{\lambda x}$ into (2.10) we have

$$\mathcal{L}(xe^{\lambda x}) = (2\lambda + a_1)e^{\lambda x} + (\lambda^2 + a_1\lambda + a_2)xe^{\lambda x} = 0$$

as required. Here, n in \mathcal{L} is 2.

Example 86.

1.

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 5\frac{dy}{dx} + 6y = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^2 + 5\lambda + 6 = 0, \lambda = -3, -2. \text{ So}$$

$$y(x) = A_1e^{-3x} + A_2e^{-2x}$$

2.

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 4\frac{dy}{dx} + 4y = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^2 + 4\lambda + 4 = 0, \lambda = -2, -2. \text{ So}$$

$$y(x) = A_1e^{-2x} + A_2xe^{-2x}$$

What about *complex roots* of (2.11)? (assuming $a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{R}$) We know that the roots are complex conjugates, i.e. $\lambda_{1,2} = \alpha \pm i\beta, \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$. Now, formally our solution is, as above,

$$y = A_1e^{(\alpha+i\beta)x} + A_2e^{(\alpha-i\beta)x}$$

Since $\beta \neq 0$ here since the roots cannot be equal! so we can rewrite in alternative forms:

$$y = e^{\alpha x} [A_1e^{i\beta x} + A_2e^{-i\beta x}] = e^{\alpha x} [C_1 \cos \beta x + C_2 \sin \beta x]$$

where A_1, A_2 or C_1, C_2 can be taken as our arbitrary constants. (Naturally, $C_1 = A_1 + A_2, C_2 = (A_1 - A_2)i$ by De Moivre.)

Example 87.

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + 2k\frac{dx}{dt} + \omega^2 x = 0$$

which is the equation for damped harmonic oscillator ($k > 0$).

$$\lambda^2 + 2k\lambda + \omega^2 = 0, \quad \lambda_{1,2} = -k \pm \sqrt{k^2 - \omega^2}$$

and

$$x(t) = A_1 e^{\lambda_1 t} + A_2 e^{\lambda_2 t}$$

in general. This can be broken down into different cases.

(1) $k = 0$, i.e. *No Damping*.

$$x = A_1 e^{i\omega t} + A_2 e^{-i\omega t} = C_1 \cos \omega t + C_2 \sin \omega t$$

(2) $k^2 < \omega^2$, i.e. *Light Damping*.

$$x = A_1 e^{-kt+i\omega t} + A_2 e^{-kt-i\omega t} = (C_1 \cos \omega t + C_2 \sin \omega t)e^{-kt}$$

$$\text{with } \omega = (\omega^2 + k^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

(3) $k^2 > \omega^2$, i.e. *Heavy Damping*.

$$x = A_1 e^{-|\lambda_1|t} + A_2 e^{-|\lambda_2|t}$$

since λ_1, λ_2 are each negative real.

(4) $k^2 = \omega^2$, i.e. *Critical Damping*.

$$\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = -k \Rightarrow x = (A_1 + A_2 t)e^{-kt}$$

Note: $x(t)$ behaviours for various cases!

Finding a PI Now we have the CF we need any particular solution of (2.9), in order to complete the job of finding the general solution. The PI is *not unique!* Our guide is the form of the function $f(x)$ on RHS.

(a) *polynomial in x*

Try a polynomial for the PI and choose the coefficients to fit! Example:

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 3\frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = x$$

Try $y_{PI} = ax^2 + bx + c$, where we need to find a, b, c . This method is often known as the method of undetermined coefficients.

We now determine them! (SIAS — Suck It And See)

$$2a - 3(2ax + b) + 2(ax^2 + bx + c) = x$$

By comparing the coefficients, we can obtain

$$a = 0, b = \frac{1}{2}, c = \frac{3}{4} \Rightarrow y_{PI} = \frac{1}{2}x + \frac{3}{4}$$

Since $y_{CF} = A_1e^x + A_2e^{2x}$ for this equation, then the general solution can be written as

$$y(x) = A_1e^x + A_2e^{2x} + \frac{1}{2}x + \frac{3}{4}$$

Note: Our inclusion of ax^2 term in our trial PI has been self-correcting since it emerged that $a = 0$. This is always so; the method gives what is needed!

(b) *multiple of e^{bx}*

The obvious choice for the PI is Ae^{bx} , since the linear operator \mathcal{L} generates only terms of this type — choose A to fit! But there are two cases to consider:

(i) e^{bx} not in y_{CF} , i.e. $\mathcal{L}(e^{bx}) \neq 0$

Example:

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 5\frac{dy}{dx} + 6y = 7e^{8x}$$

with

$$y_{CF} = A_1e^{-3x} + A_2e^{-2x}$$

Try $y_{PI} = Ae^{8x}$, then

$$Ae^{8x}[64 + 40 + 6] = 7e^{8x} \Rightarrow A = \frac{7}{110}$$

and general solution is

$$y(x) = y_{\text{CF}} + \frac{7}{110}e^{8x}$$

(ii) e^{bx} is contained in y_{CF} , i.e. $\mathcal{L}e^{bx} = 0$

Our trial solution in (i) now does not work! We might hope (anticipate) that xe^{bx} might be involved, and just try it... (SIAS)

A more ‘automatic’ approach is to take the Ae^{bx} from the CF (where A was constant) and try a PI of the form $A(x)e^{bx}$ — called ***variation of parameters***. We expect that $A(x)$ will be a polynomial in x !

Example:

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 3x + 2y = e^{-x}$$

with

$$y_{\text{CF}} = A_1e^{-x} + A_2e^{-2x}$$

Try $y_{\text{PI}} = A(x)e^{-x}$.

$$\Rightarrow (A'' - 2A' + A)e^{-x} + 3(A' - A)e^{-x} + 2Ae^{-x} = e^{-x}$$

By comparing the coefficients, we get

$$A'' + A' = 1$$

Afterwards, integrate with respect to x once and we get

$$A' + A = x + \overline{C}_1$$

Solving this first-order linear equation, and we get

$$A = x + C_1 + C_2e^{-x}$$

$$\Rightarrow y_{\text{PI}} = A(x)e^{-x} = xe^{-x} + C_1e^{-x} + C_2e^{-2x}$$

Take $\text{PI} = xe^{-x}$ (W.L.O.G), we can obtain

$$y(x) = A_1e^{-x} + A_2e^{-2x} + xe^{-x}$$

Of course if the auxiliary equation has equal roots then y_{CF} has xe^{bx} too! However the variation of parameters still works — or alternatively (a trial polynomial)(e^{bx}).

Example:

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 4\frac{dy}{dx} + 4y = e^{-2x}$$

with

$$y_{CF} = A_1e^{-2x} + A_2xe^{-2x}$$

We can then set PI as

$$\begin{aligned} y_{PI} &= A(x)e^{-2x} \Rightarrow \dots A'' = 1 \Rightarrow A = \frac{x^2}{2} + [\overline{A_1} + \overline{A_2}x] \\ &\Rightarrow y(x) = A_1e^{-2x} + A_2xe^{-2x} + \frac{x^2}{2}e^{-2x} \end{aligned}$$

(c) e^{bx} is *polynomial* in x

Try $PI = C(x)e^{bx}$ where $C(x)$ is a polynomial with coefficients to be found — as in (a), (b) above.

(d) sines, cosines, sinh, cosh

We *either* just recognize the pattern and put e.g. $A \cos(\cdot) + B \sin(\cdot)$ or $A \cosh(\cdot) + B \sinh(\cdot)$, etc.

OR

Make use of exponentials — maybe complex ones using $e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$, etc.

Example:

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 3\frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = e^x \cos x$$

with

$$y_{CF} = A_1e^{-x} + A_2e^{-2x}.$$

There is no obvious trouble with this CF...

- (1) Try $y_{PI} = Be^x \cos x + Ce^x \sin x$ because $\mathcal{L}(y_{PI})$ produces terms of a similar type. Substitute in and equate coefficients of $e^x \cos x, e^x \sin x$ on the two sides $\Rightarrow B = \frac{1}{10}, C = \frac{1}{10}$.

OR

(2) Put RHS = $\frac{1}{2}e^{(1+i)x} + \frac{1}{2}e^{(1-i)x}$ ($= \Re(e^{(1+i)x})$). Then try

$$y_{\text{PI}} = C_1 e^{(1+i)x} \Rightarrow [(1+i)^2 + 3(1+i) + 2]C_1 = 1$$

and $C_1 = \frac{1}{5(1+i)} = \frac{1}{10}(1-i)$, and

$$y_{\text{PI}} = \Re \left[\frac{1}{10}(1-i)e^{(1+i)x} \right] = \frac{1}{10}e^x \cos x + \frac{1}{10}e^x \sin x$$

Naturally, we might need to be adaptable if we find polynomials on RHS in $f(x)$ as well, or the ‘equal roots’ case... However something to beware:

Example:

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 3\frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = \cosh 2x$$

with

$$y_{\text{CF}} = A_1 e^{-x} + A_2 e^{-2x}$$

If we try $y_{\text{PI}} = C_1 \cosh 2x + C_2 \sinh 2x$, we would find C_1, C_2 not defined...

$$\begin{cases} 6C_1 + 6C_2 = 1 \\ 6C_1 + 6C_2 = 0. \end{cases}$$

Why?! Well $\cosh 2x = \frac{1}{2}(e^{2x} + e^{-2x})$ and one of these exponentials *is* in y_{CF} . The better one is

$$y_{\text{PI}} = \frac{1}{24}e^{2x} - \frac{1}{2}xe^{-2x}$$

using earlier results.

Conclusion: Try to use complex numbers, because it avoids “clashing” with hyperbolic functions, and also prevents calculation mistakes, like what would happen when differentiating sines and cosines.

Of course we might finally need to specialise our general solution to the particular solution that satisfies particular boundary conditions.

Example:

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \frac{dy}{dx} - 6y = \sin x + xe^{2x}$$

subject to $y(0) = 0$, $\frac{dy}{dx}(0) = 0$. The general solution is

$$y(x) = A_1 e^{-3x} + A_2 e^{2x} - \frac{1}{50}(\cos x + 7 \sin x) + \frac{e^{2x}}{50}(5x^2 - 2x)$$

and then

$$\left. \begin{aligned} 0 &= A_1 + A_2 - \frac{1}{50} \\ 0 &= -3A_1 + 2A_2 - \frac{7}{50} - \frac{1}{25} \end{aligned} \right\} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} A_1 = -\frac{7}{250} \\ A_2 = \frac{12}{250}. \end{cases}$$

2.1.4 Equations with variable coefficients

Special types to meet later (Bessel, Legendre, etc.) ...

A Novelty due to Euler (+ Cauchy!) If W.L.O.G.

$$x^n \frac{d^n y}{dx^n} + b_1 x^{n-1} \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} + \cdots + b_n y = f(x)$$

with b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n constants.

(i) $f(x) = 0$. Try $y = x^\lambda \Rightarrow n$ values of λ in general.

$$y(x) = A_1 x^{\lambda_1} + A_2 x^{\lambda_2} + \cdots + A_n x^{\lambda_n}$$

with n arbitrary constants.

(ii) $f(x) \neq 0$. The method in (i) above might not be nice for PI! So put $x = e^t$ to *stretch* the independent variable, becoming a *linear equation for $y(t)$* which has constant coefficients.

Example:

$$x^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + 3x \frac{dy}{dx} + y = x^3.$$

Let $x = e^t$, so $\frac{dx}{dt} = e^t = t$,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{\frac{dy}{dt}}{\frac{dx}{dt}} = \frac{1}{e^t} \frac{dy}{dt} \\ \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} &= \frac{\frac{d}{dt} \frac{dy}{dt}}{\frac{dx}{dt}} = \frac{\frac{d}{dt} (e^{-t} \frac{dy}{dt})}{e^t} = -e^{-2t} \frac{dy}{dt} + e^{-2t} \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2}. \end{aligned}$$

The equation therefore becomes

$$\left(\frac{d^2y}{dt^2} - \frac{dy}{dt} \right) + 3\frac{dy}{dt} + y = e^{3t}$$

i.e.

$$\frac{d^2y}{dt^2} + 2\frac{dy}{dt} + y = e^{3t}.$$

So

$$y(t) = A_1 e^{-t} + A_2 t e^{-t} + \frac{1}{16} e^{3t}$$

and

$$y(x) = \frac{A_1}{x} + \frac{A_2}{x} \ln x + \frac{1}{16} x^3.$$

We should note that $x > 0$ and $x < 0$ need to be treated separately since $x = 0$ is an evident singularity. For $x < 0$ we would need to substitute $x = -e^t$ in the above method.

2.2 Difference Equations

2.2.1 Definitions and Examples

(Recurrence relations, maps, discrete dynamical systems, . . .) From variables whose change is ‘continuous’, we now consider variables which are ‘discrete’. (‘Season to season’, ‘one accounting period to the next’, etc.) We have a *dependent variable* $U(n)$ with *integer independent variable* n — together with a relation connecting $U(n)$ to $U(n+1), U(n+2), \dots$.

Note:

- (i) **Order** corresponds to how many succeeding generations are involved.
- (ii) **Difference equation** is associated with e.g. $A(n+1) - A(n) = f[A(n)]$, for instance.

Example 88.

(a) Fibonacci Sequence

Leonardo of Pisa wondered about how many rabbit pairs would be produced in the n th generation starting from a single pair and supposing that any pair from one generation produces a new pair each generation after an initial gap...

$$\begin{cases} U(n) &= 1 \ 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 5 \ 8 \ 13 \dots \\ n &= 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4 \ 5 \ 6 \ 7 \dots \end{cases}$$

and

$$U(n+2) = U(n) + U(n+1).$$

The equation is homogeneous (because only function of $U(n)$ is present without a single term of $f(n)$), linear, and second order.

(b) Money!

If we have an amount $A(n)$ at the beginning of an accounting period, then the amount at the end of that period (i.e. at the beginning of the next) is

$$A(n+1) = \left(1 + \frac{R}{100}\right)A(n)$$

where $R\%$ is interest rate. The equation is homogeneous, linear, and first order.

If a payment is made each period, then

$$A(n+1) = \left(1 + \frac{R}{100}\right)A(n) - P.$$

The equation is inhomogeneous, linear, and first order.

(c) Population Dynamics

Population $P(n)$ of an organism measured in each season is

$$P(n+1) = aP(n) - b[P(n)]^2$$

where a, b are positive. The first term indicates the growth, while the second term indicates the overcrowding or competition. (It is quadratic because it relates to the *interactions* of two entities, and the number of ways to choose such as pair from a population is quadratic!)

This is a form of what is known as the ***logistic map***. It is homogeneous, nonlinear, and first order. This turns out to have many different behaviours to that of logistic differential equation.

2.2.2 Linear Difference Equations

Broadly we use methods very similar to those we employed for linear differential equations — particularly terminologies like ‘Complementary Function’ and ‘Particular integral’, ‘number of arbitrary constants’, ‘order’, …

Example 89.

(a) Fibonacci Sequence

$$U(n+2) = U(n) + U(n+1)$$

Try $U(n) = A\lambda^n$, where A is an arbitrary constant and λ is a particular constant (to be found). We can therefore obtain the *characteristic equation* (as compared with the *auxiliary equation* in differential equations):

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda^2 - \lambda - 1 &= 0. \\ \Rightarrow \lambda_{1,2} &= \frac{1}{2} \pm \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{5} = \tau, -\frac{1}{\tau} \end{aligned}$$

with $\tau = 1.6180\dots$, which is the golden number. We therefore get

$$\begin{aligned} U(n) &= A_1\lambda_1^n + A_2\lambda_2^n \\ &= A_1\tau^n + A_2\left(-\frac{1}{\tau}\right)^n. \end{aligned}$$

Substitute in $U(1) = 1, U(2) = 1$, we obtain $A_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}, A_2 = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}$.

$$\Rightarrow U(n) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left[\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n - \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n \right]$$

which is known as the “Binet formula”.

A particular interesting identity as an application of the Fibonacci Sequence is the “Cassini’s identity”:

$$U(n+2)U(n) - [U(n+1)]^2 = (-1)^{n+1}$$

which can show that $13 \times 5 - 8^2 = 1$.

There are other sequences, such as the Lucas sequence, where $U(1) = 1, U(2) = 3$, etc.

(b) MoneyA

$$A(n+1) - \left(1 + \frac{R}{100}\right) A(n) = -P$$

$A(n)_{\text{CF}}$ is obtained by solving LHS = 0. Try

$$A(n) = A\lambda^n \Rightarrow \lambda = 1 + \frac{R}{100}$$

and

$$A(n)_{\text{CF}} = A \left(1 + \frac{R}{100}\right)^n.$$

$$A(n)_{\text{PI}} = C, \text{ where } C = \frac{-P}{1 - (1 + \frac{R}{100})}$$

(The power terms cancel out each other due to the coefficient of $A(n)$. Therefore we only take the coefficient of $A(n)$ and $A(n+1)$.) And so

$$A(n) = A \left(1 + \frac{R}{100}\right)^n - \frac{P}{\frac{-R}{100}}$$

We also need to choose appropriate A so that initial balance is $A(0)$.

Note: The methods employed in the previous examples are just like those we used for differential equations which have the property of linearity.

General Case with constant coefficients

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}U(n) &= a_0U(n+m) + a_1U(n+m-1) + a_2U(n+m-2) + \dots \\ &\quad + a_{m-1}U(n+1) + a_mU(n) = f(n) \end{aligned}$$

with a_0, a_1, \dots, a_m constants. The equation is linear, order m . It is homogeneous iff $f(n) = 0$, and inhomogeneous iff $f(n) \neq 0$.

The General Solution (GS) can always be written as

$$U_{\text{GS}} = U_{\text{CF}} + U_{\text{PI}}$$

where $\mathcal{L}U_{\text{CF}} = 0$, $\mathcal{L}U_{\text{PI}} = f(n)$. U_{CF} has m arbitrary constants, while U_{PI} is any solution i.e. it is not unique.

For the CF with a constant coefficient equation we try $U(n)_{\text{CF}} \propto \lambda^n$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^n [a_0\lambda^m + a_1\lambda^{m-1} + \dots + a_{m-1}\lambda + a_m] = 0$$

where $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_m$ are roots of this characteristic equation. Then

$$U(n)_{\text{CF}} = A_1\lambda_1^n + A_2\lambda_2^n + \cdots + A_m\lambda_m^n$$

with A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m being arbitrary constants.

Example 90.

$$\begin{aligned} (1) \quad & U(n+2) + 7U(n+1) - 18U(n) = 0 \\ & \Rightarrow \lambda^2 + 7\lambda - 18 = 0, \lambda_1 = -9, \lambda_2 = 2. \\ & \Rightarrow U(n) = A_1(-9)^n + A_2(2)^n. \end{aligned}$$

What about the equal roots case?

$$\begin{aligned} (2) \quad & U(n+2) - 6U(n+1) + 9U(n) = 0 \\ & \Rightarrow \lambda^2 - 6\lambda + 9 = 0, \lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 3. \end{aligned}$$

Certainly we have $A_1(3)^n$, but we need something else! — It is $A_2n(3)^n$.

$$\Rightarrow U(n) = A_13^n + A_2n3^n.$$

What about a PI? Well, as for differential equations, it all depends on $f(n)$!

(a) $f(n) = Cp^n$ where $p \neq \lambda_1$ or λ_2 , and C is a constant.

This is easy! $U(n)_{\text{PI}} = Ap^n$ with A chosen suitably. From our earlier example, we put

$$U(n+2) + 7U(n+1) - 18U(n) = 6(4)^n.$$

Since $4 \neq -9$ or 2 we can write $U(n)_{\text{PI}} = A(4^n)$,

$$A(4^{n+2}) + 7A(4^{n+1}) - 18A(4^n) = 6(4^n)$$

i.e. $16A + 28A - 18A = 6 \Rightarrow A = \frac{3}{13}$. So

$$U_{\text{GS}} = A_1(-9)^n + A_2(2)^n + \frac{3}{13}(4)^n.$$

(b) $f(n) = Cp^n$ where $p = \lambda_1$ (say)

Just as for a differential equations we need a more complicated $U(n)_{\text{PI}} = A(n)\lambda_1^n$, where $A(n)$ is a polynomial in n . Again from our earlier example, we put

$$U(n+2) + 7U(n+1) - 18U(n) = 3(2)^n.$$

Let's say

$$U(n)_{\text{PI}} = A(n)(2)^n = (a + bn + cn^2)(2^n)$$

Well, apparently $a = 0$, after comparing with $U(n)_{\text{CF}}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} [b(n+2) + c(n+2)^2]2^{n+2} + 7[b(n+1) + c(n+1)^2]2^{n+1} \\ - 18(bn + cn^2)2^n = 3(2^n) \end{aligned}$$

Cancel a factor of 2^n , then the n^2 terms are cancelled, and n terms leave $4(b+4c) + 14(b+2c) - 18b = 0$, and constant terms leave $4(2b+4c) + 14(b+c) = 3$.

$$\Rightarrow c = 0 \text{ and } b = \frac{3}{22}.$$

So

$$U_{\text{GS}} = A_1(-9)^n + A_2(2)^n + \frac{3}{22}n(2^n)$$

and so on...

Since our equation is linear, we can just add terms together to construct $U(n)_{\text{PI}}$ for quite complicated $f(n)$ on RHS.

Some results can seem very strange! The Binet formula for Fibonacci numbers involved irrational numbers as building blocks — but produced integers!

Example:

$$U(n+2) - 2U(n+1) + 5U(n) = 0$$

with say $U(1) = 6, U(2) = 2$ (so that $U(0) = 2$) which obviously produces a sequence of integers. However,

$$\lambda^2 - 2\lambda + 5 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_1 = 1 + 2i, \lambda_2 = 1 - 2i.$$

So

$$U(n) = A_1(1 + 2i)^n + A_2(1 - 2i)^n$$

Substitute $n = 0, 1$ into the equation, and we get

$$A_1 = 1 - i, A_2 = 1 + i$$

and

$$U(n) = (1 - i)(1 + 2i)^n + (1 + i)(1 - 2i)^n.$$

So $U(3) = -26$, etc.

(c) $f(n)$ is a polynomial in n

Well here we just need to choose a suitable polynomial and choose the coefficients to fit the case.

Example: Try to find

$$S(n) = 1^2 + 2^2 + \cdots + n^2 = \sum_{r=1}^n r^2.$$

If we knew the answer or could guess, then we could confirm using induction. If not we can just recognize that

$$S(n+1) - S(n) = (n+1)^2$$

We can easily see that $\lambda = 1$, implying that

$$S(n)_{\text{CF}} = A(1)^n = A.$$

Then

$$S(n)_{\text{PI}} = an^3 + bn^2 + cn.$$

(Do not need a constant term here since it is already in CF.) So

$$a(n+1)^3 + b(n+1)^2 + c(n+1) - an^3 - bn^2 - cn = (n+1)^2$$

Comparing the coefficients, we get $a = \frac{1}{3}, b = \frac{1}{2}, c = \frac{1}{6}$. So

$$S(n)_{\text{GS}} = A + \frac{1}{3}n^3 + \frac{1}{2}n^2 + \frac{1}{6}n$$

and $A = 0$ since we know $S(0) = 0, S(1) = 1$, etc. So

$$S(n) = \frac{1}{3}n^3 + \frac{1}{2}n^2 + \frac{1}{6}n = \frac{1}{6}n(n+1)(2n+1).$$

This method is constructive, and we can extend the idea to find $\sum_{r=1}^n r^3 = \left[\frac{1}{2}n(n+1)\right]^2$, etc.

As always, if we tried a polynomial PI which is too simple, or too complicated, the calculation is self-correcting!

$$(d) f(n) = (\text{polynomial in } n)(p)^n$$

Just like our previous cases our expectation is

$$U(n)_{\text{PI}} = (\text{suitable polynomial})(p)^n.$$

Then following similar step: matching coefficients, substitute in values, obtain value of the constant if boundary condition is provided, etc.

2.2.3 Differencing and Difference Tables

Definition 91. The (forward) **difference operator** Δ is defined by

$$\Delta U(n) = U(n+1) - U(n)$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta^2 U(n) &= \Delta[U(n+1) - U(n)] \\ &= \Delta U(n+1) - \Delta U(n) \\ &= [U(n+2) - U(n+1)] - [U(n+1) - U(n)] \\ &= U(n+2) - 2U(n+1) + U(n)\end{aligned}$$

(Attention: binomial coefficients appear in the above process! and this continues on!) Now we can see that $\Delta n^k = (n+1)^k - n^k = kn^{k-1} + \dots + 1$, and this means that

$$\Delta(\text{polynomial in } n \text{ of degree } k) = (\text{polynomial in } n \text{ of degree } (k-1))$$

We can continue this process of course, $\Delta(\Delta(\Delta(\dots))) = \Delta^k()$.

$$\Rightarrow \Delta^k(\text{polynomial of degree } k) = (\text{polynomial of degree } 0)$$

and $\Delta^{k+1}(\text{polynomial of degree } k) = 0$.

Note: Successive differencing is a *discrete* analogy to differentiation. Do a comparison with the definition of differentiation at a point. $(\frac{d^4}{dx^4}(x^4)) = 24$

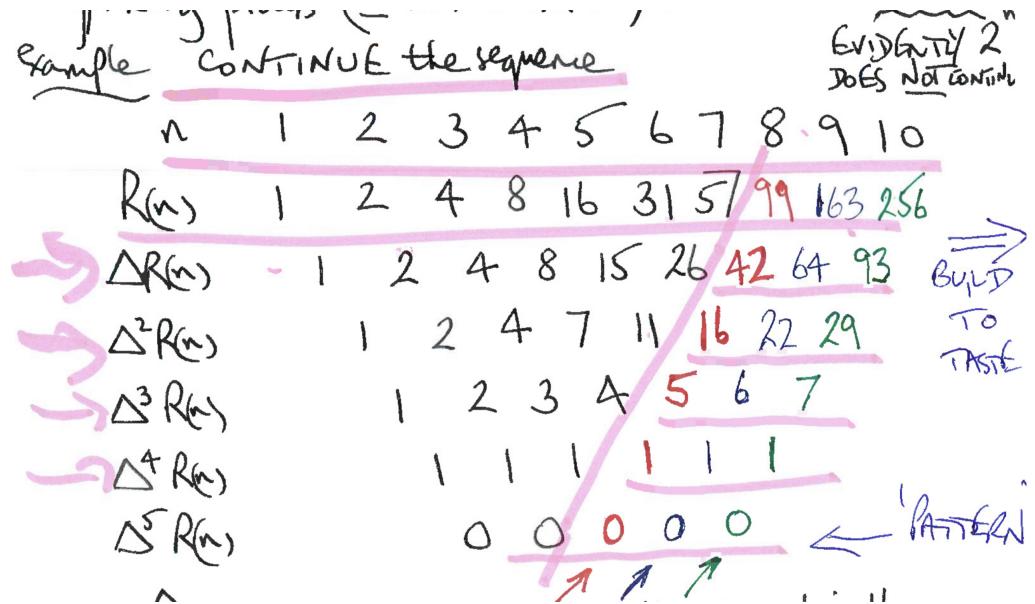


Figure 2.1: graph of reverse differencing porcess

of course!) We can consider the reverse (*inverse*) of the differencing process (\approx integration).

Example 92.

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta n^4 &= (n+1)^4 - n^4 = 4n^3 + 6n^2 + 4n + 1 \\ \Delta^2(n^4) &= \Delta(4n^3) + \Delta(6n^2) + \Delta(4n) + \Delta(1) = 12n^2 + 24n + 14 \\ \Delta^3(n^4) &= 24n + 36 \\ \Delta^4(n^4) &= 24 \\ \Delta^5(n^4) &= 0.\end{aligned}$$

And and example of the *inverse* process is as shown in figure 2.1. To find out the sequence of $R(n)$ beyond $n = 7$, one can keep on differencing the sequence (which is *polynomial-like*) until its fourth and fifth order, realizing the repetitive 0s and 1s pattern, construct further 1s and 0s, and do the inverse back until order 0, i.e. constructing $R(n)$. The pattern continues, in fact, only when $R(n)$ is a $k = 4$ degree polynomial in n .

Note: (Not in syllabus) There is a discrete analogy to Taylor's expansion, involving Newton's forward difference interpolation formula ...

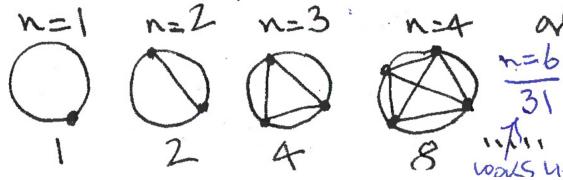


Figure 2.2: Circle Division

The sequence in the inverse process is actually

$$\begin{aligned}
 & 1 + (n - 1) + \frac{1}{2}(n - 1)(n - 2) + \frac{1}{6}(n - 1)(n - 2)(n - 3) \\
 & \quad + \frac{1}{24}(n - 1)(n - 2)(n - 3)(n - 4) \\
 & = \binom{n-1}{0} + \binom{n-1}{1} + \binom{n-1}{2} + \binom{n-1}{3} + \binom{n-1}{4} \\
 & = \binom{n}{0} + \binom{n}{2} + \binom{n}{4}.
 \end{aligned}$$

This expression represents the numbers of distinct regions into which the interior of a circle is partitioned when n distinct boundary points are connected by straight lines, as shown in figure 2.2. This is, however, not easy to prove!

2.2.4 First Order Recurrence/Discrete Nonlinear Systems

Consider $x_{n+1} = F(x_n)$ where $x_n = x(n)$, $x_n \neq 0$. And we have initial choice x_0 :

$$\Rightarrow x_1 = F(x_0) \Rightarrow x_2 = F(x_1) = F(F(x_0)) = F^{(2)}(x_0) \Rightarrow \dots$$

This process is called ***iteration*** — some function is used repeatedly — *iterative process*. We can represent this process graphically, as shown in Figure 2.3.

There are 2 fixed points P_1 and P_2 , for which the x values satisfy

$$X = F(X) \Rightarrow X_1, X_2.$$

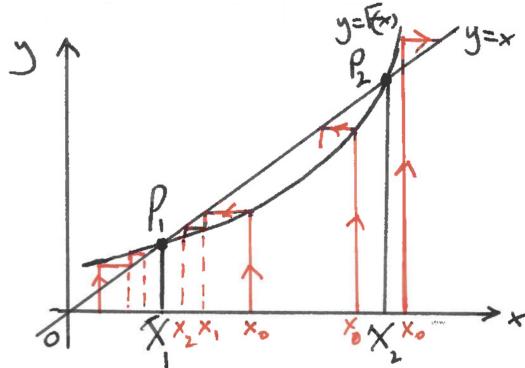


Figure 2.3: 'Cobweb' Diagram

However, the *character* of P_1 and P_2 is very different — initial values x_0 which start near X_1 have x_n which approaches X_1 , while those x_0 which start near X_2 certainly are *not* giving x_n which approaches X_2 !

Definition 93. X_1 corresponding to P_1 is said to be **asymptotically stable** or *attracting*, and is called **attractor**; X_2 corresponding to P_2 is said to be **unstable** or *repelling*, and is called **repeller**.

How can we distinguish them analytically?

Suppose $x_{n+1} = F(x_n)$ and $X = F(X)$. We put $X = x_n + \epsilon_n$ and imagine x_0 is chosen so that ϵ_0 is ‘small’ i.e. x_0 is ‘near’ to X . Let’s see how ϵ_n develops (whether x_n converges or diverges to X):

$$X - \epsilon_{n+1} = x_{n+1} = F(x_n) = F(X - \epsilon_n) = F(X) - \epsilon_n F'(X) + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_n^2 F''(X) + \dots$$

with the last step using taylor expansion, and by cancelling X and $F(X)$, we get

$$\epsilon_{n+1} = \epsilon_n F'(X) - \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_n^2 F''(X) + \dots$$

ϵ_{n+1} can therefore be estimated using different values of the various orders of $F(X)$:

- $F'(X) \neq 0 \Rightarrow \epsilon_{n+1} \approx \epsilon_n F'(X) \Rightarrow \epsilon_n \approx \epsilon_0 [F'(X)]^n$.

This process is called **first order process**. Then if $|F'(X)| < 1$, then $\epsilon_n \rightarrow 0$ and X is an attractor. Otherwise if $|F'(X)| > 1$, then ϵ_n

diverges and X is a repeller. However, if $|F'(X)| = 1$ then it depends on the case — nothing is already proven.

- $F'(X) = 0, F''(X) \neq 0 \Rightarrow \epsilon \approx -\frac{1}{2}\epsilon_n^2 F''(X) \Rightarrow \epsilon_{n+1} \propto \epsilon_n^2$.

This process is called **second order process**. $\forall \epsilon_0$ sufficiently small, we have $\epsilon_n \rightarrow 0$, and X is *always* an attractor. (Proof is not provided here.)

Note that it is *faster* than first order convergence, therefore it is usually preferred to design a process such that it is second order for studying that particular matter for better result.

- $F'(X) = 0, F''(X) = 0, F'''(X) \neq 0 \Rightarrow \epsilon_{n+1} \propto \epsilon_n^3$.

This process is called **third order process**.

And so on. The *rate* of convergence increases with the order of the process. Third order process and beyond are usually unnecessary, but occasionally they may be required. In practice we hope for second order, but will often settle for first order.

Example 94.

(a)

$$x_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} \left(x_n + \frac{A}{x_n} \right) = F(x_n)$$

which is a method for finding \sqrt{A} . For instance, $A = 12, x_0 = 2, \dots, x_4 = 3.4641$, etc.

The fixed points are $X = \frac{1}{2} \left(X + \frac{A}{X} \right) \rightarrow X = \pm\sqrt{A}$. By drawing the Cobweb diagram, we should see that $x_0 > 0 \Rightarrow x_n \rightarrow \sqrt{A}, x_0 < 0 \Rightarrow x_n \rightarrow -\sqrt{A}$.

Next we find out which order the process is:

$$\begin{aligned} F'(X) &= \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \frac{A}{X^2} \right) = 0 \\ F''(X) &= \frac{A}{X^3} = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{A}} \neq 0. \end{aligned}$$

So this is a second order process, and $\pm\sqrt{A}$ are attractors with $\epsilon_{n+1} \propto \epsilon_n^2$.

Exercise: Consider $A < 0$?

(b) Solve

$$f(x) = x^2 - 6x + 2 = 0.$$

We can rearrange this in various ways and write it in iterative process:

- (i) $x_{n+1} = 6 - \frac{2}{x}$
- (ii) $x_{n+1} = \frac{1}{6}x_n^2 + \frac{1}{3}$
- (iii) $x_{n+1} = \sqrt{6x_n - 2}$
- (iv) $x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{x_n^2 - 6x_n + 2}{2x_n - 6} = \frac{x_n^2 - 2}{2x_n - 6}.$

Examining these (see Problem Sheet 3) we find that (iv) is the ‘best buy’ in that it is the *only* second order process and it is the only one which allows us to obtain both roots and attractors if we choose x_0 suitably.

(c)

$$x_{n+1} = x_n(2 - Ax_n)$$

which is a method for finding a reciprocal *without* division! ($x_n \rightarrow \frac{1}{A}$) It is a second order process.

Note: Examples (a), (b)(iv), (c) are examples of what is now called the *Newton(-Raphson) Method* for finding solutions of $f(x) = 0$:

$$x_{n+1} = F(x_n) = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}.$$

Such a process is *normally* at least second order (good!) because

$$F'(x) = 1 - \frac{f'(x)}{f'(x)} + \frac{f(x)f''(x)}{(f'(x))^2} = 0$$

and

$$F''(x) = \frac{f''(x)}{f'(x)} \neq 0 \text{ usually.}$$

However, there are some difficulties in implementing the method successfully, including choosing a value near roots, having multiple roots, etc.

(d) modern, practical, surprising. . . Population Dynamics

Recall the *logistic map equation*:

$$P(n+1) = aP(n) - b(P(n))^2$$

which is a simple mathematical model with very complicated dynamics. Put $x_n = \frac{b}{a}P(n)$, and we get

$$x_{n+1} = ax_n(1 - x_n)$$

with a being the constant. This is the standard form of logistic map.

Although there is no restriction for mathematical interest, the ‘physical’ interest is in $0 \leq a \leq 4$ so that $[0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$. We can easily see that the maximum value that $x_n(1 - x_n)$ can get is $\frac{1}{4}$, therefore having any $a > 4$ would definitely result in $x_{n+1} > 1 \Rightarrow x_{n+2} < 0$, and let alone $a < 0$. We certainly would not want negative population values!

There are evidently two fixed points satisfying

$$X = aX(1 - X) \Rightarrow X = 0 \text{ and } X = 1 - \frac{1}{a}.$$

Which do we get, and when? Take the first order process and analyse with different ranges of a :

$$|F'(X)| = |a(1 - 2X)|.$$

- $0 \leq a < 1$, $a = 0$ is trivial.

We can deduce that $x = 0$ is an attractor, while $x = 1 - \frac{1}{a}$ is a repeller. This makes sense because it is a linear model made worse by overcrowding.

- $1 < a < 3$.

We can deduce that $x = 0$ is a repeller, while $x = 1 - \frac{1}{a}$ is an attractor. This makes sense because it is an exponential growth stabilised by overcrowding.

This behaviour is very similar to that of the logistic differential equation — what follows is definitely not so!

- $a > 3$.

We can deduce that $x = 0$ and $x = 1 - \frac{1}{a}$ are both repellers.

So what exactly do we get? We get ‘*period doubling*’.

Consider $x_{n+2} = F(x_{n+1}) = F(F(x_n)) = F^{(2)}(x_n) = a[ax_n(1 - x_n)][1 - ax_n(1 - x_n)]$. The fixed points of this satisfy

$$X = a^2X(1 - X)[1 - aX(1 - X)] \quad (2.12)$$

We still have $X = 0, X = 1 - \frac{1}{a}$ of course, (it is a fixed point on a map done twice.) but now we have two new ones, say X_1 and X_2 , satisfying

$$a^2X^2 - a(a + 1)X + (a + 1) = 0 \quad (2.13)$$

which is derived from dividing equation (2.12) with the two known solutions. (Or do factorization accordingly.)

We also know that $X_1 = F(F(X_1)), X_2 = F(F(X_2))$. As such, choosing X_1 , and applying the map once, we can see that $F(X_1) = F(F(F(X_1)))$, i.e. both X_1 and $F(X_1)$ are the two fixed points of the map done twice, satisfying the equation (2.13), which is exactly looking for the two roots which are the fixed points of the logistic map done twice, and there are no other such fixed point except for X_2 , thus we must have

$$X_1 = F(X_2), \quad X_2 = F(X_1).$$

This forms a *flip* or *2-cycle*. (Before becoming 4-cycle, 8-cycle, etc.) This is an attractor when

$$\left| \frac{d}{dx}F(F(x)) \right| < 1$$

$$\Rightarrow |F'(X_1)F'(X_2)| < 1, |a(1 - 2X_1)a(1 - 2X_2)| < 1$$

and using Vieta’s theorem to obtain the sum and product of the two roots from equation (2.13), we get

$$3 < a < 1 + \sqrt{6}$$

for positive a . For increasingly larger $a > 1 + \sqrt{6}$, we then obtain 4 cycle \Rightarrow 8 cycle $\Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow$ arbitrary number of cycle, or *chaotic behaviour!*

Novelty! The stable windows (when it is still in a certain number of cycle instead of being completely random, or rather *chaotic* behaviour) get shorter in geometrical progression at rate $\frac{1}{4.669\dots}$, where $4.669\dots$ is the *Feigenbaum constant*. (The first one. There is another one, which is not introduced by Berkshire, and actually beyond the scope of the current study, according to Wikipedia.) For $3.57 < a \leq 4$, ‘Chaos’ + periodic windows!

For motivation to study this section, please watch the following youtube video:

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ovJcsL7vyrk>

For studying in detail, please read the following book recommended by our dear lecturer Frank Berkshire:

<https://physicaeducator.files.wordpress.com/2018/02/classical-mechanics-by-kibble-and-berkshire.pdf>

2.3 Linear Systems of Differential Equations

2.3.1 definitions and examples

Previously we saw some simple examples of systems of differential equations, where there is more than one dependent variable, e.g. the first order system

$$\begin{cases} \frac{dx}{dt} = F(x, y) \\ \frac{dy}{dt} = G(x, y). \end{cases} \quad (2.14)$$

A very important class for us to consider is that of *linear systems*:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{dx}{dt} = ax + by \\ \frac{dy}{dt} = cx + dy \end{cases} \quad (2.15)$$

where, in general, a, b, c, d could be functions of time — we take them to be *constants* in our discussion. System (2.15) is called ***homogeneous***. If there are further added constants or functions of time on RHS of (2.15) then the system would be called ***inhomogeneous***.

Notes: (2.15) is a ***coupled system*** in general, in that x and y appear on *each* RHS.

Examples

(a) Combat:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{dx}{dt} = -ay \\ \frac{dy}{dt} = -bx. \end{cases}$$

Here $a = 0 = d$; b, c are both negative in (2.15).

(b) Romance!

$$\begin{cases} \frac{dr}{dt} = ar + bj \\ \frac{dj}{dt} = cr + dj \end{cases}$$

where a, b, c, d can plausibly be positive or negative! ($r(t)$ is Romeo's love/hate for Juliet at time t . Similarly, $j(t)$ is Juliet's love/hate for Romeo at time t .)

(c) Linear Ordinary Differential Equations of higher order

E.g. Our damped harmonic oscillator

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + 2k\frac{dx}{dt} + \omega^2x = 0$$

can be written in the form

$$\begin{cases} \frac{dx}{dt} = y \\ \frac{dy}{dt} = \omega^2x - 2ky. \end{cases} \quad (2.16)$$

(d) General nonlinear systems

In general we can find equilibria of (2.14) by solving $F(x, y) = 0 = G(x, y)$. The local behaviour of x, y near these equilibria is that of a local linear System (via Taylor expansion). This analysis allows us to infer the properties of the full nonlinear systems.

How do we solve *linear systems* like (2.15)?

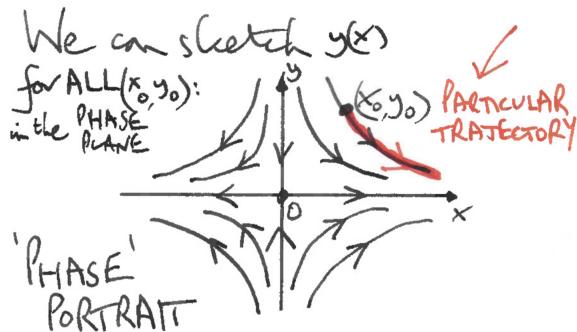


Figure 2.4: ‘phase’ portrait

A desirable and worthy aim is to try to *decouple* the equations — if necessary by making a suitable change of variables. This is a good idea because if we have a decoupled system, e.g.

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = 2x, \quad \frac{dy}{dt} = -3y$$

then for an initial ($t = 0$) point (x_0, y_0) the solution would be $(x, y) = (x_0 e^{2t}, y_0 e^{-3t})$. In this case, as shown in Figure 2.4, all the trajectories are given by $x^3 y^2 = \text{constant}$, and the particular solution has $x^3 y^2 = x_0^3 y_0^2$. Within a family of solutions, the value of x and y changes as the value of t changes, with the direction specified in the diagram.

As such, we can also see that there is one equilibrium point at $O(0, 0)$, where any changes in the value of t does not change the value of x and y . In addition, the equilibrium point is *not stable* since, although having perturbation in the y -axis converges back to 0, perturbations along the x -axis diverges to infinity. So O is definitely not an attractor.

What can be done with a coupled system? e.g.

$$\begin{cases} \frac{dx}{dt} = -4x - 3y \\ \frac{dy}{dt} = 2x + 3y \end{cases} \quad (2.17)$$

(For the moment we consider a homogeneous system — some inhomogeneous later.)

Methods

(1) We might recognize that

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{d}{dt} + 4 \right) x &= -3y \quad \text{and} \quad \left(\frac{d}{dt} - 3 \right) y = 2x \\ \Rightarrow \left(\frac{d}{dt} - 3 \right) \left(\frac{d}{dt} + 4 \right) x &= -3 \left(\frac{d}{dt} - 3 \right) y = -6x \\ \Rightarrow \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + \frac{dx}{dt} - 6x &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Solve this using the previous methods: $\lambda_1 = 2, \lambda_2 = -3$, so that $x(t) = A_1 e^{2t} + A_2 e^{-3t}$. Naturally we can then find $y(t)$ from the first rearrangement above:

$$y(t) = -\frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{d}{dt} + 4 \right) x = -2A_1 e^{2t} - \frac{1}{3} A_2 e^{-3t}$$

and we note that our solution for $x(t), y(t)$ depends on 2 arbitrary constants — as it must!

Afterwards, we can also find $y(x)$ by eliminating t , if we wish. Using the expressions we obtained for $x(t)$ and $y(t)$, we can obtain

$$\begin{aligned} (x + 3y) &= -5A_1 e^{2t}, \quad (2x + y) = \frac{5}{3} A_2 e^{-3t} \\ \Rightarrow (x + 3y)^3 (2x + y)^2 &= \frac{3125}{9} A_1^3 A_2^2. \end{aligned}$$

We can then draw the family of trajectories in the (x, y) plane (phase portrait).

(2) We might also note that our (2.17) can be written as

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{\frac{dy}{dt}}{\frac{dx}{dt}} = \frac{2x + 3y}{-4x - 3y} = \frac{2 + 3 \left(\frac{y}{x} \right)}{-4 - 3 \left(\frac{y}{x} \right)}.$$

This is homogeneous 1st order D.E. We put $\frac{y}{x} = u(x) \Rightarrow x \frac{du}{dx} + u = \frac{2+3u}{-4-3u}$, and then we get

$$x \frac{du}{dx} = \frac{2 + 7u + 3u^2}{-4 - 3u}$$

solving this equation and we get

$$-\ln x = \frac{3}{5} \ln(1+3u) + \frac{2}{5} \ln(2+u) + C$$

substituting x and y back and eliminating t and we get

$$(x+3y)^3(2x+y)^2 = C.$$

Warning: This method is not favourable as it does not contain any information regarding t —it was got rid of at the very start, therefore no time-dependence of x and y , i.e. $x(t), y(t)$. As a result, we cannot do certain things such as drawing the phase portrait!

(3) We might just notice(!) that

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dt}(2x+y) &= 2(-4x-3y) + (2x+3y) = -3(2x+y) \\ \frac{d}{dt}(x+3y) &= (-4x-3y) + 3(2x+3y) = 2(x+3y)\end{aligned}$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned}&\begin{cases} 2x+y = C_1 e^{-3t} \\ x+3y = C_2 e^{2t} \end{cases} \\ \Rightarrow &\begin{cases} x = \frac{3}{5}C_1 e^{-3t} - \frac{1}{5}C_2 e^{2t} \\ y = -\frac{1}{5}C_1 e^{-3t} + \frac{2}{5}C_2 e^{2t} \end{cases}\end{aligned}$$

and of course $(x+3y)^3(2x+y)^2 = C$ again.

All the aforementioned methods have the same phase portrait, as shown in Figure 2.5. The direction of the two straight lines $x+3y=0$ and $2x+y=0$ can be found easily, and the other four trajectories have to follow the same direction as those two straight lines, unless there are two trajectories intersecting and have an equilibrium point.

Method (3) gives the germ of a good idea!

(4) How can we arrive at the linear combinations we used previously in an orderly manner and not just ‘by inspection’ or luck?!

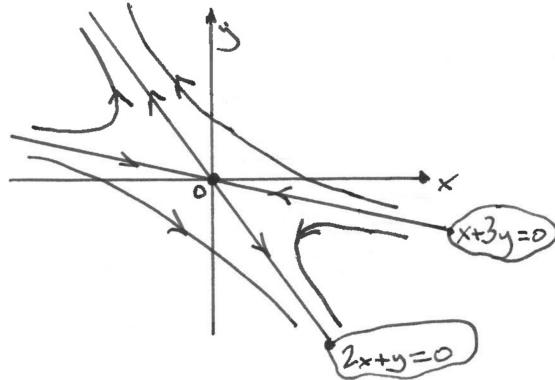


Figure 2.5: phase portrait of (2.17)

We write our system (2.17) in a different way:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -4 & -3 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.18)$$

which is $\frac{d}{dt}\mathbf{v} = M\mathbf{v}$ in vector/matrix notation. Now try $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{V}e^{\lambda t}$ with \mathbf{V} not depending on t , i.e. it is a *constant vector*. This implies that

$$M\mathbf{V} = \lambda\mathbf{V}, \text{ i.e. } (M - \lambda I)\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{0}$$

converting to an eigenvalue/eigenvector problem to find appropriate λ, \mathbf{V} .

For non-trivial \mathbf{V} (i.e. $\neq 0$) then we must have

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} -4 - \lambda & -3 \\ 2 & 3 - \lambda \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

$\Rightarrow (-4 - \lambda)(3 - \lambda) + 6 = 0, \lambda^2 + \lambda - 6 = 0, \lambda_1 = 2, \lambda_2 = -3$. And computing the respective eigenvector, we get

$$\mathbf{V}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{V}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix},$$

or any scalar multiple of these vectors. (Substitute λ_1, λ_2 into $(M - \lambda I)$ and compute its RRE, and read off from RRE.)

We now note the *linearity* of our system, so we can write

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = B_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} e^{2t} + B_2 \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} e^{-3t}$$

where B_1, B_2 are arbitrary constants. Therefore $x = B_1 e^{2t} + 3B_2 e^{-3t}$, $y = -2B_1 e^{2t} - B_2 e^{-3t}$. (Note: results are the same as the previous methods.)

2.3.2 System decoupling

How does the last method do it? From the eigenvectors $\mathbf{V}_1, \mathbf{V}_2$ form the matrix

$$S = (\mathbf{V}_1 \quad \mathbf{V}_2) \quad \text{i.e. } 2 \times 2$$

and write

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = S \begin{pmatrix} \xi \\ \eta \end{pmatrix}.$$

(*Similarity transformation*: transform linearly (x, y) to new axes (ξ, η)) The vector form of (2.18) becomes

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} \left[S \begin{pmatrix} \xi \\ \eta \end{pmatrix} \right] &= S \frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} \xi \\ \eta \end{pmatrix} = MS \begin{pmatrix} \xi \\ \eta \end{pmatrix} \\ \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} \xi \\ \eta \end{pmatrix} &= S^{-1} MS \begin{pmatrix} \xi \\ \eta \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

assuming that S is a *nonsingular matrix* (invertible). Then by noting that

$$S^{-1}S = \begin{pmatrix} R_1 \\ R_2 \end{pmatrix} (\mathbf{V}_1 \quad \mathbf{V}_2) = I_n$$

where R_1, R_2 are of dimension 1×2 . Using $M\mathbf{V} = \lambda\mathbf{V}$, we can deduce that

$$S^{-1}MS = \begin{pmatrix} R_1 \\ R_2 \end{pmatrix} MS = \begin{pmatrix} R_1 \\ R_2 \end{pmatrix} (\lambda_1 \mathbf{V}_1 \quad \lambda_2 \mathbf{V}_2) = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

which is a diagonal matrix. For instance, in (2.18),

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ -2 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, S^{-1} = \frac{1}{5} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} \xi \\ \eta \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \xi \\ \eta \end{pmatrix}$$

and this is decoupled! As such, $\frac{d}{dt}\xi = 2\xi$, $\frac{d}{dt}\eta = -3\eta \Rightarrow \xi = C_1 e^{2t}, \eta = C_2 e^{-3t}$. Therefore as before,

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = S \begin{pmatrix} \xi \\ \eta \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} C_1 e^{2t} + 3C_2 e^{-3t} \\ -2C_1 e^{2t} - C_2 e^{-3t} \end{pmatrix}$$

General Theory Does this vector/matrix method always work?

For $\mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$, $\frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt} = M\mathbf{v}$, substituting with $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{V}e^{\lambda t}$, we get $(M - \lambda I)\mathbf{V} =$

0. The solution depends *crucially* on the nature of the eigenvalue/eigenvector problem $\lambda_1, \mathbf{V}_1, \lambda_2, \mathbf{V}_2$.

We note that $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 = \text{trace of } M$ (sum of the leading diagonal of M), and $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 = \det M$. Both can be derived by looking at the quadratic equation derived from calculating the determinant of $(M - \lambda I)$ to be 0. The equation is *characteristic* for M .

- $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$

Our example (2.18) was of this type, thereby having $\mathbf{V}_1, \mathbf{V}_2$ eigenvectors. Our system decouples via the *similarity transformation* and $S^{-1}MS$ is a diagonal matrix. This is essentially the situation even when the λ_i are *complex*.

- $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda$

We've always had some difficulty with the equal roots cases... Here the difficulty presents in that the matrix S , which effects the desired decoupling *may not exist*.

- (i) 2 distinct eigenvectors exist.

If $\mathbf{V}_1, \mathbf{V}_2$ are distinct for M, λ then it is true that $M\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$ for any vector, i.e. $M = \lambda I$ and

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = B_1 \mathbf{V}_1 e^{\lambda t} + B_2 \mathbf{V}_2 e^{\lambda t}.$$

with $\mathbf{V}_1, \mathbf{V}_2$ being two linearly-independent and random vectors in the plane.

- (ii) Only one eigenvector exists.

The best that can be done by a similarity transformation is to reduce the system to e.g.

$$\frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} \xi \\ \eta \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 1 & \lambda \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \xi \\ \eta \end{pmatrix}$$

or equivalent. The diagonal form is *not* achievable. By looking at $\frac{d\eta}{dt}$, we realize that

$$\frac{d\eta}{dt} = \xi + \lambda\eta \Rightarrow \frac{d\eta}{dt} - \lambda\eta = \xi,$$

where the CF of η already appears in ξ . So we have to use $te^{\lambda t}$ instead. As such,

$$\begin{pmatrix} \xi \\ \eta \end{pmatrix} = C_1 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} e^{\lambda t} + C_2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ t \end{pmatrix} e^{\lambda t}.$$

Note: If M is actually a *symmetric matrix* with real entries then λ_1, λ_2 are real, the $\mathbf{V}_1, \mathbf{V}_2$ are real and orthogonal. If we then choose $\mathbf{V}_1, \mathbf{V}_2$ (as we may, if we wish) to be of unit length (normalised), then $S^{-1} = S^T$ and S represents a rotation in the x, y plane (or rotation + reflection). S is an orthogonal matrix.

2.3.3 Typical Phase Portraits

What do the phase portraits look like in the various different cases? The eigenvalues λ_1, λ_2 are evidently crucial in determining the structure and the time t evolution arrows on the trajectories.

The eigenvectors determine the crucial ξ, η decoupled coordinate directions, where appropriate. We note in the interpretation of the diagrams that

$$\begin{aligned} \xi &\propto e^{\lambda_1 t}, \quad \eta \propto e^{\lambda_2 t} \\ \Rightarrow \xi &\propto \eta^{\frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_2}}, \quad \frac{d\xi}{d\eta} \propto \eta^{\frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_2}-1} \text{ in general.} \end{aligned}$$

Thus dominant eigenvector *nearly always* depends on $\left| \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_2} \right| > 1$ or $\left| \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_2} \right| < 1$, and the other trajectories come in *parallel/tangent* to the dominant eigenvector. Now pardon me for the shamelesses numerous screenshots of Berkshire's notes for the phase portraits.

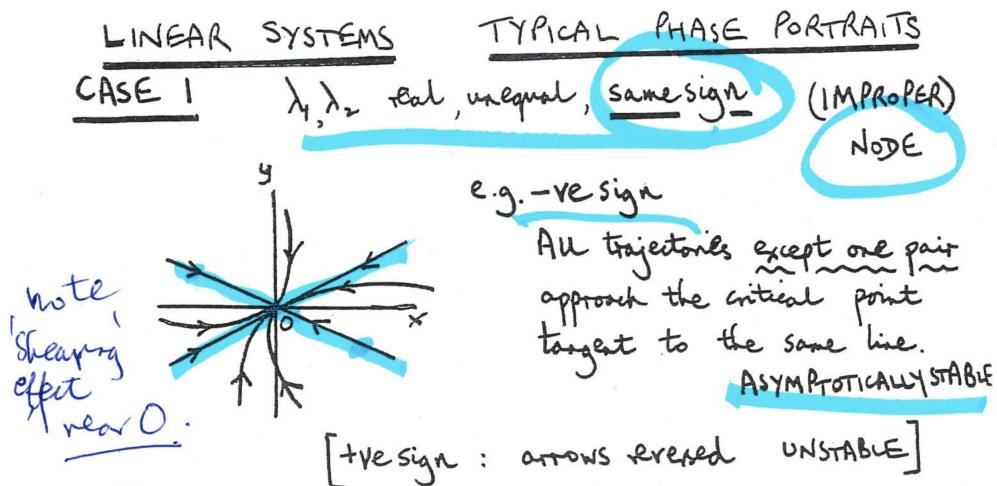


Figure 2.6: case 1

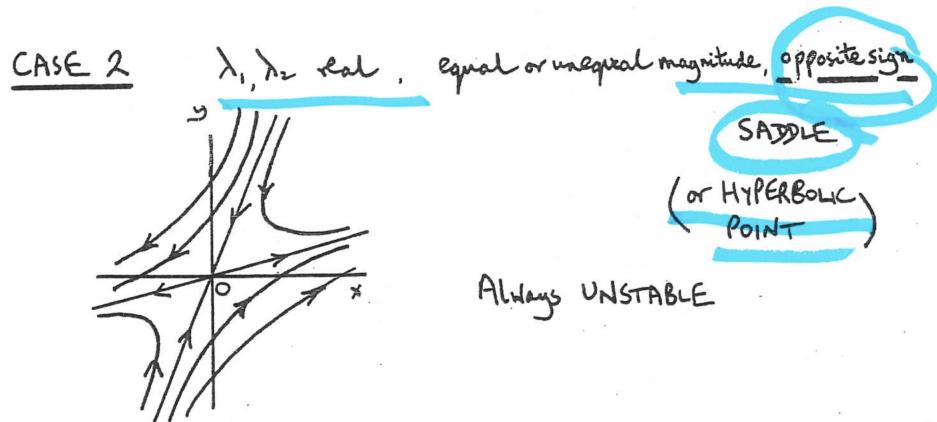
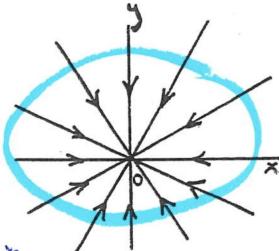


Figure 2.7: case 2

CASE 3 $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda$ (necessarily real)

(i) When M may be diagonalised

All
vectors
are
eigenvectors
of
 M
essentially



λ -ve sign

ASYMPTOTICALLY STABLE

(PROPER) NODE

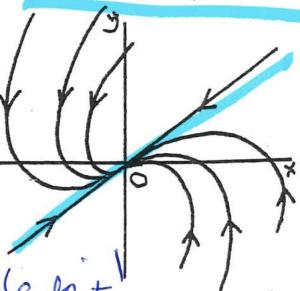
(or STAR, FOCUS,
SOURCE / SINK)

[+ve sign : arrows reversed
UNSTABLE]

Figure 2.8: case 3 (i)

(ii) When M may not be diagonalised

Slope
determined
by looking
at cut
(dx/dy)
(dt/dt)
at a single point



λ -ve sign

ASYMPTOTICALLY STABLE

IMPROPER NODE

(or INFLECTED
NODE)

[+ve sign : arrows reversed
UNSTABLE]

Figure 2.9: case 3 (ii)

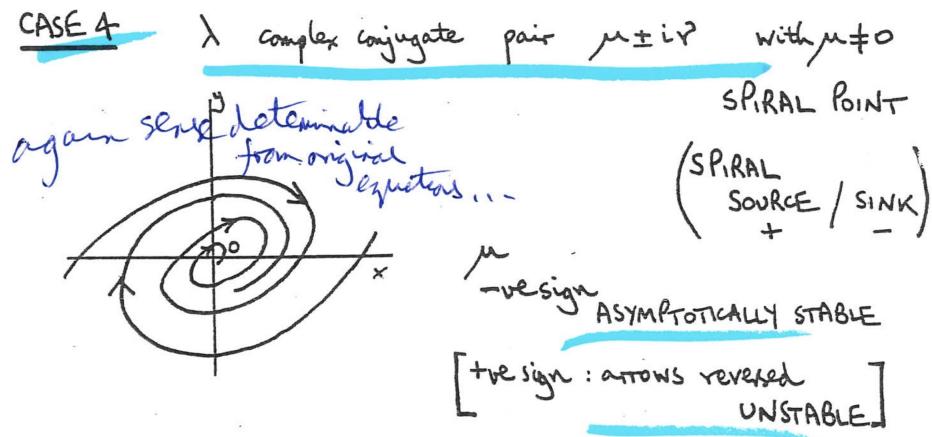


Figure 2.10: case 4

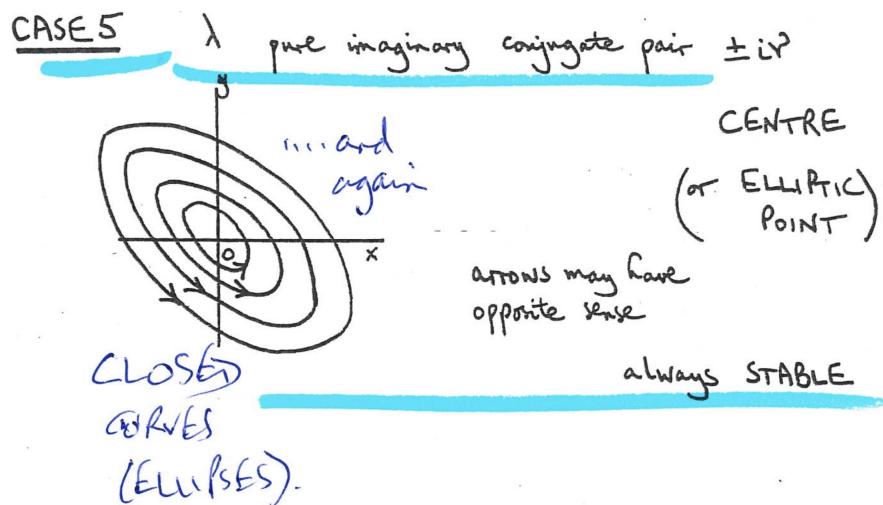


Figure 2.11: case 5

Further explanation for case 5: say $x(t)$ and $y(t)$ can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned}x(t) &= A_1 \cos \nu t + A_2 \sin \nu t \\y(t) &= ()A_1 \cos \nu t + ()A_2 \sin \nu t\end{aligned}$$

By solving for $\cos \nu t$ and $\sin \nu t$, we can see that they are directly proportional to the different linear combination of $x(t)$ and $y(t)$. By applying the formula $\cos^2 \nu t + \sin^2 \nu t = 1$, we derive that the equation for x and y are both at power 2, therefore we can see that the graph should be *elliptic*.

Example 95.

- (i) (2.17) is ‘case 2’.
- (ii) (2.16) — the damped harmonic oscillator — is:

- $k = 0$ corresponds to ‘case 5’.
- $k^2 < \omega^2$ corresponds to ‘case 4’.
- $k^2 > \omega^2$ corresponds to ‘case 1’.
- $k^2 = \omega^2$ corresponds to ‘case 3(ii)’.

- (iii) $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2$ awkward (case 3(ii)).

Try solving

$$\frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.19)$$

$\Rightarrow \lambda_1 = 2 = \lambda_2$ and we have $\mathbf{V} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ (sole eigenvector here), so

that $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = B_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} e^{2t}$ is certainly part of our solutions. To find the complete solution we can avoid some rather more advanced linear algebra by just anticipating a general form for our second part of the solution

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} te^{2t} + \begin{pmatrix} c \\ d \end{pmatrix} e^{2t}$$

and find a, b, c, d to fit! Note that $\begin{pmatrix} c \\ d \end{pmatrix}$ is needed since it does not span the space! So $\begin{pmatrix} c \\ d \end{pmatrix}$ is not parallel (or antiparallel) to the eigenvector

$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$. Substitute into (2.19):

$$2 \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} te^{2t} + \left[\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} + 2 \begin{pmatrix} c \\ d \end{pmatrix} \right] e^{2t} = M \left[\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} te^{2t} + \begin{pmatrix} c \\ d \end{pmatrix} e^{2t} \right].$$

Equate coefficients respectively of te^{2t}, e^{2t} on each side:

$$\begin{cases} (M - 2I) \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ (M - 2I) \begin{pmatrix} c \\ d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{V} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ or any multiple} \\ \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c \\ d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \\ \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} c \\ d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} K \\ -1 - K \end{pmatrix} (K \text{ is arbitrary}) \end{cases}$$

Finally we have for this second solution:

$$B_2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} te^{2t} + B_2 \left[\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} + K \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \right] e^{2t}.$$

The term with coefficient K is not needed since it has already appeared in the first half of the solution. Thus the general solution is

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = B_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} e^{2t} + B_2 \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} te^{2t} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} e^{2t} \right]$$

with two arbitrary constants as required.

(iv) $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$ but complex pair (case 4/5)

(a)

$$\frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} & 1 \\ -1 & -\frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$$

$\Rightarrow \lambda_1 = -\frac{1}{2} + i, \lambda_2 = -\frac{1}{2} - i$, and we can find eigenvectors formally

$$\mathbf{V}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{V}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{pmatrix}.$$

So we have

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = B_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix} e^{(-\frac{1}{2}+i)t} + B_2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{pmatrix} e^{(-\frac{1}{2}-i)t}$$

where B_1, B_2 are arbitrary. Looking at \Re and \Im parts,

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \pm i \end{pmatrix} e^{(-\frac{1}{2} \pm i)t} &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \pm i \end{pmatrix} e^{-\frac{1}{2}t} (\cos t \pm i \sin t) \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} e^{-\frac{1}{2}t} \cos t \\ -e^{-\frac{1}{2}t} \sin t \end{pmatrix} \pm i \begin{pmatrix} e^{-\frac{1}{2}t} \sin t \\ e^{-\frac{1}{2}t} \cos t \end{pmatrix} \\ \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} &= C_1 \begin{pmatrix} e^{-\frac{1}{2}t} \cos t \\ -e^{-\frac{1}{2}t} \sin t \end{pmatrix} + C_2 \begin{pmatrix} e^{-\frac{1}{2}t} \sin t \\ e^{-\frac{1}{2}t} \cos t \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

where $C_1 = B_1 + B_2, C_2 = (B_1 - B_2)i$. The form above is best for real initial condition.

(b) Simple harmonic oscillator ($k = 0$)

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -\omega^2 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \iff \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + \omega^2 x = 0, y = \frac{dx}{dt}. \\ \Rightarrow \lambda_1 &= i\omega, \lambda_2 = -i\omega, \mathbf{V}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i\omega \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{V}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i\omega \end{pmatrix}. \text{ Therefore,} \\ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} &= B_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i\omega \end{pmatrix} e^{i\omega t} + B_2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i\omega \end{pmatrix} e^{-i\omega t} \\ &= C_1 \begin{pmatrix} \cos \omega t \\ -\omega \sin \omega t \end{pmatrix} + C_2 \begin{pmatrix} \sin \omega t \\ \omega \cos \omega t \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

2.3.4 Extensions

(i) inhomogeneous systems

$$\frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} - M \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} f_1(t) \\ f_2(t) \end{pmatrix}$$

can be solved by the standard method we used for simple linear ordinary differential equations

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}_{\text{GS}} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}_{\text{CF}} + \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}_{\text{PI}}$$

We solved CF earlier in this chapter. For PI, it is very difficult in general. Here we just need to find any single particular solution for simple cases such as f_1 and f_2 are constants, so let PI be a constant vector, and solve for it will do.

(ii) higher order systems

The whole process may be generalised, e.g.

$$\frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}.$$

Since $\det(M - \lambda I) = 0$, $\lambda^3 - 4\lambda^2 - \lambda + 4 = 0$,

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_1 &= 4, \lambda_2 = 1, \lambda_3 = -1, \mathbf{V}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{V}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{V}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \\ \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} &= B_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} e^{4t} + B_2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} e^t + B_3 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} e^{-t}. \end{aligned}$$

It is also possible to have equal roots, or complex conjugate pair!

2.4 Partial Differentiation

2.4.1 Introduction

Consider a function $u = u(x, y)$ of 2 independent variables x, y . We can think of u as being the height of a surface above the (x, y) plane. It is often helpful to visualize the surface using *contour lines*

$$u(x, y) = C$$

for different values of c , which is a constant. The countour lines are marked with the value C which $u(x, y)$ would give.

Physically u could represent a geometrical object or temperature or pressure or ... We now look at (spatial) rates of change. Firstly, start at $P(x, y)$ and move a small distance $\delta x = h$ in the x direction to $Q(x+h, y)$ i.e. keeping y fixed.

Definition 96. We define (if the limit exists):

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left[\frac{u(x+h, y) - u(x, y)}{h} \right]$$

as the rate of change of u with respect to x at P (keeping y fixed).

Notations: $\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}, \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}\right)_y, u_x, \dots$ Be careful with the subscripts!

Similarly, for $P(x, y) \rightarrow P(x, y + k)$, we define:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = \lim_{k \rightarrow 0} \left[\frac{u(x, y + k) - u(x, y)}{k} \right]$$

as the rate of change of u with respect to y at P (keeping x fixed). The notations: $\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}, \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right)_x, u_y, \dots$

Examples

(i) $u = x^2 \sin y + y^3$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 2x \sin y, \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = x^2 \cos y + 3y^2.$$

We can, of course, consider higher derivatives:

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right) = u_{xx}, \quad \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) = u_{xy}$$

Note the order of the partial differentiation in the second expression. For the example above we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} &= 2 \sin y, & \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} &= -x^2 \sin y + 6y, \\ \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y \partial x} &= 2x \cos y, & \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial y} &= 2x \cos y. \end{aligned}$$

We note that, in this case, $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y \partial x}$, which is a general result, requiring only continuity of LHS and RHS — usually the case. E.g. $\frac{x-y}{x+y}$ is not continuous at $(x, y) = (0, 0)$.

Similarly, we generally have $u_{xxyyx} = u_{yxyxx} = \dots$

(ii) $u(x, y) = a \sin(x - ct)$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} &= a \cos(x - ct), & \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} &= -a \sin(x - ct), \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} &= -ac \cos(x - ct), & \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} &= -ac^2 \sin(x - ct). \end{aligned}$$

We can see that $u(x, t)$ satisfies

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2}$$

which is a 2nd order linear P.D.E. It is the one-dimensional wave equation.

In fact, any reasonable function $f(x - ct)$ will satisfy this equation! It represents a wave form moving (with $c > 0$ here) to the right. (if $c < 0$, then moving to the left)

(iii) $u = \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x}$. This satisfies

$$\nabla^2 u = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0.$$

which is a second order linear P.D.E. It is famously known as the Laplace's equation.

2.4.2 The Total Differential

When we have a function of a single variable $f(x)$, and we make a small change $x \rightarrow x + \delta x$ so that $f \rightarrow f + \delta f$, then $\delta f \approx \frac{df}{dx} \delta x$. In the limit (“small, $\rightarrow 0$ ”)

$$df = \frac{df}{dx} dx.$$

Now for a function of two variables, small changes $x \rightarrow x + \delta x$, $y \rightarrow y + \delta y$ lead to $u(x, y) \rightarrow u + \delta u$, with $\delta u = u(x + \delta x, y + \delta y) - u(x, y)$, so $\delta u \approx \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \delta x + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \delta y$.

Definition 97. The **total differential** of $u(x, y)$ is

$$du = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} dy.$$

The idea can be generalized to higher dimensions, e.g. $u(x, y, z)$ etc.

Examples

(i) $u = x^2 \sin y + y^3$, and we can get

$$\delta u \approx (2x \sin y)\delta x + (x^2 \cos y + 3y^2)\delta y$$

$$du = (2x \sin y)dx + (x^2 \cos y + 3y^2)dy.$$

(ii) Area of a rectangle $A = xy$. Here

$$\begin{aligned}\delta A &= (x + \delta x)(y + \delta y) - xy \\ &= \underbrace{y\delta x + x\delta y}_{\text{1st order small}} + \underbrace{\delta x\delta y}_{\text{2nd order small}}\end{aligned}$$

Therefore $\delta A \approx y\delta x + x\delta y \iff A = ydx + xdy$.

(iii) Height of a building $h = x \tan \theta$.

Let $x = 200\text{m}$ with error $\pm 2\text{m}$, $\theta = 20^\circ$ with error $\pm \frac{1}{2}^\circ$. We can derive that

$$\delta h \approx (\tan \theta)\delta x + (x \sec^2 \theta)\delta \theta.$$

Central estimate is $200 \tan\left(\frac{\pi}{9}\right) = 72.8\text{m}$.

$$\Rightarrow \delta h \approx 0.36\delta x + 226.5\delta \theta$$

with $|\delta x| \leq 2$, $|\delta \theta| \leq \frac{\pi}{360} = 0.0087$. So

$$|\delta h| \leq (0.36)(2) + (226.5)(0.0087) = 2.7\text{m}$$

and $h = 72.8 \pm 2.7\text{m}$. (which is $\pm 3.7\%$)

2.4.3 Function of a function — ‘The Chain Rule’

If we have $u = f(x)$ and $x = g(t)$, then we have as a consequence

$$\frac{du}{dt} = \frac{du}{dx} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt} = f'(x)g'(t) = f'(g(t))g'(t).$$

Now consider $u = u(x, y)$ where $x(t)$ and $y(t)$. We saw previously that

$$\delta u \approx \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}\delta x + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\delta y \implies \frac{\delta u}{\delta t} \approx \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \frac{\delta x}{\delta t} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \frac{\delta y}{\delta t}.$$

Definition 98. The chain rule in 3-dimension is

$$\frac{du}{dt} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dt}$$

where x and y are functions *only* of t .

E.g. if $x(r, s)$ and $y(r, s)$ then

$$\frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial r} = \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial r}, \quad \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial s} = \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial s} + \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial s}.$$

Examples

(i) Volume V of a cylindrical box of radius r and height h : $V = \pi r^2 h$.

If we know that $r = 2t, h = 1 + t^2$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dV}{dt} &= \frac{\partial V}{\partial r} \frac{dr}{dt} + \frac{\partial V}{\partial h} \frac{dh}{dt} \\ &= (2\pi rh)(2) + (\pi r^2)(2t) \\ &= 8\pi(t + 2t^3) \end{aligned}$$

Check: $V = \pi(2t)^2(1+t^2) = 4\pi(t^2+t^4)$, and of course $\frac{dV}{dt} = 8\pi t + 16\pi t^3$.

(ii) $u(x, y) = \bar{u}(s, t) = x^2 y$ with $x = st, y = s + t$.

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial s} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial s} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial s} = (2xy)(t) + (x^2)(1) = \dots = 3s^2t^2 + 2st^3 \\ \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial t} = (2xy)(s) + (x^2)(1) = \dots = 3s^2t^2 + 2s^3t. \end{cases}$$

Again, we can check this since $u(x, y) = (st)^2(s+t) = \bar{u}(s, t)$.

(iii) $u(x, y) = xy + y^2$, a *cautionary* example!

If we have a second relation $y = x + t$, then of course

$$\bar{u}(x, t) = x(x+t) + (x+t)^2.$$

We have to be careful when we look at the variation of u and \bar{u} with respect to x :

- (a) $\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = y (= x + t)$
 (b) $\frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} = 2x + t + 2(x + t) (= 4x + 3t)$.

These are not the same — u and \bar{u} have the same function values at corresponding points. But in (a), y is being kept constant $(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x})_y$, and in (b), t is being kept constant $(\frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x})_t$. So care is needed evidently! Ensure that the substitution is *disjoint*!

2.4.4 From Cartesians to Polars

$$\underbrace{u(x, y)}_{\text{Cartesians}} = \underbrace{\bar{u}(r, \theta)}_{\text{Plane Polars}}$$

with

$$\begin{cases} x = r \cos \theta \\ y = r \sin \theta \end{cases}, \quad \begin{cases} r = (x^2 + y^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\ \theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x} \end{cases}.$$

Both are *orthogonal* systems! We need to be careful! E.g.

$$\left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial r} \right)_\theta = \cos \theta \quad \text{and} \quad \left(\frac{\partial r}{\partial x} \right)_y = \frac{x}{(x^2 + y^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}} = \cos \theta.$$

They are keeping different constants, so we should *not* be tempted!

$$\left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial r} \right)_\theta \neq \frac{1}{\left(\frac{\partial r}{\partial x} \right)_y}.$$

Note: The Cartesian and Polar versions of our function have the same function values, but are described differently! E.g.

$$u(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 = r^2 = \bar{u}(r, \theta)$$

and it is not $(r^2 + \theta^2)$.

Chain rule

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} &= \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial r} \frac{\partial r}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial \theta} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} \\ &= (\cos \theta) \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial r} + \left(-\frac{\sin \theta}{r} \right) \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial \theta} \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} &= \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial r} \frac{\partial r}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial \theta} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial y} \\ &= (\sin \theta) \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial r} + \left(\frac{\cos \theta}{r} \right) \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial \theta}.\end{aligned}$$

Definition 99. The *partial differential operators* are defined as

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial x} &= \cos \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial r} - \frac{\sin \theta}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial y} &= \sin \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \frac{\cos \theta}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}\end{aligned}$$

which relate rates of change in the two different coordinate systems!

Examples

(i) $u(x, y) = x^2 - y^2 = r^2(\cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta) = \bar{u}(r, \theta)$.

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 2x = 2r \cos \theta, \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -2y = -2r \sin \theta.$$

(ii) We can express $\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right)^2$ in plane polars as

$$\begin{aligned}&\left[(\cos \theta) \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial r} + \left(-\frac{\sin \theta}{r} \right) \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial \theta} \right]^2 + \left[(\sin \theta) \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial r} + \left(\frac{\cos \theta}{r} \right) \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial \theta} \right]^2 \\ &= \left(\frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial r} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{r^2} \left(\frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial \theta} \right)^2.\end{aligned}$$

(iii) For Laplace equation $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0$,

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right) = \left(\cos \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial r} - \frac{\sin \theta}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \right) \left(\cos \theta \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial r} - \frac{\sin \theta}{r} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial \theta} \right)$$

∴ Attrition!

$$\begin{aligned}&= \cos^2 \theta \frac{\partial^2 \bar{u}}{\partial r^2} - \frac{2 \cos \theta \sin \theta}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \bar{u}}{\partial r \partial \theta} + \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 \bar{u}}{\partial \theta^2} \\ &\quad + \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 \bar{u}}{\partial \theta^2} + \frac{2 \sin \theta \cos \theta}{r^2} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial \theta}\end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) = \left(\sin \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \frac{\cos \theta}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \right) \left(\sin \theta \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial r} + \frac{\cos \theta}{r} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial \theta} \right) \\ &\therefore \text{Attrition!} \\ &= \sin^2 \theta \frac{\partial^2 \bar{u}}{\partial r^2} + \frac{2 \cos \theta \sin \theta}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \bar{u}}{\partial r \partial \theta} + \frac{\cos^2 \theta}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \bar{u}}{\partial r^2} \\ &\quad + \frac{\cos^2 \theta}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 \bar{u}}{\partial \theta^2} - \frac{2 \sin \theta \cos \theta}{r^2} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial \theta}.\end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} &= \underbrace{\frac{\partial^2 \bar{u}}{\partial r^2}}_{= \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial r} \right)} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 \bar{u}}{\partial \theta^2} = 0.\end{aligned}$$

Laplace in 3 dimensions is

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2} = 0.$$

2.4.5 Implicit Functions

If we have a function defined implicitly $F(x, y) = 0$, then F does not change as x and y do so. The total derivative then is

$$dF = \frac{\partial F}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial F}{\partial y} dy = 0.$$

So the derivative of y with respect to x is given by

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{F_x}{F_y}.$$

Examples

(i) $F(x, y) = x^2 \sin y + xy - 1 = 0$, then

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{2x \sin y + y}{x^2 \cos y + x}.$$

If we have an implicit function of 3 variables $F(x, y, z) = 0$, this constrains our point (x, y, z) to be on a particular surface. We can certainly

regard, if we wish, $x = x(y, z)$ or $y = y(x, z)$ or $z = z(x, y)$. Now, no change in F on the surface,

$$\Rightarrow dF = \frac{\partial F}{\partial x}dx + \frac{\partial F}{\partial y}dy + \frac{\partial F}{\partial z}dz = 0.$$

Then:

- At constant y : $\left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)_y = -\frac{F_x}{F_z}$
- At constant x : $\left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\right)_x = -\frac{F_y}{F_z}$
- At constant z : $\left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}\right)_z = -\frac{F_x}{F_y}$.

Note: Here

$$\left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)_y = \frac{1}{\left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial z}\right)_y}$$

because the variable y is being kept constant on both sides — we are looking at variation on a constant y slice of the $F = 0$ surface!

- (ii) In thermodynamics the equation of *state* of a gas/liquid is written

$$F(p, V, T) = 0$$

It is an implicit definition of $p = p(V, T)$. Only in simple cases can we express this relation *explicitly*, e.g. ideal gas $P = \frac{RT}{V}$.

In any case, from the general relation above, we can show that

$$\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial V}\right)_T \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial P}\right)_V = -1$$

an example of an *exact thermodynamic identity*.

2.4.6 Taylor Series

Recall that for functions with *one* independent variable, we have

$$u(x) = u(x_0) + (x - x_0)u'(x_0) + \frac{(x - x_0)^2}{2!}u''(x_0) + \dots$$

or

$$u(x_0 + h) = u(x_0) + hu'(x_0) + \frac{h^2}{2!}u''(x_0) + \dots$$

and it is called ‘Maclaurin’ if $x_0 = 0$.

Now extended: we now consider a function $u(x, y)$ of two independent variables x, y in the neighbourhood of (x_0, y_0) . That is we seek an expansion in power of $h = x - x_0, k = y - y_0$. So

$$\begin{aligned} u(x, y) &= u(x_0 + h, y_0 + k) \\ &= u(x_0, y_0 + k) + h \frac{\partial}{\partial x}[u(x_0, y_0 + k)] + \frac{h^2}{2!} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}[u(x_0, y_0 + k)] + \dots \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} u(x_0, y_0 + k) &= u(x_0, y_0) + k \frac{\partial}{\partial y}u(x_0, y_0) + \frac{k^2}{2!} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}[u(x_0, y_0)] + \dots \\ h \frac{\partial}{\partial x}[u(x_0, y_0 + k)] &= h \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x}[u(x_0, y_0)] + k \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y \partial x}[u(x_0, y_0)] + \dots \right] \\ \frac{h^2}{2!} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}[u(x_0, y_0 + k)] &= \frac{h^2}{2!} \left[\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}[u(x_0, y_0)] + k \frac{\partial^3}{\partial y \partial x^2}[u(x_0, y_0)] + \dots \right] \\ &\vdots \end{aligned}$$

Now collect the terms, and we get

$$\begin{aligned} u(x, y) &= u_0 + \underbrace{\left[h \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right)_0 + k \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right)_0 \right]}_{\text{first order}} \\ &\quad + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2!} \left[h^2 \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \right)_0 + 2hk \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial y} \right)_0 + k^2 \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} \right)_0 \right]}_{\text{second order}} + \dots \end{aligned} \tag{2.20}$$

where the subscript 0 means that it is evaluated at (x_0, y_0) .

There is a straightforward pattern to these terms, where we are assuming that $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y \partial x}$ etc. We can write the operator

$$\mathcal{D} = h \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + k \frac{\partial}{\partial y}.$$

The above Taylor series can then be re-written as

$$u(x_0 + h, y_0 + k) = u_0 + \mathcal{D}u_0 + \frac{\mathcal{D}^2u_0}{2!} + \frac{\mathcal{D}^3u_0}{3!} + \dots$$

and our pattern involves the binomial coefficients explicitly, i.e.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{D}^2u_0 &= \left(h\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + k\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right)\left(h\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + k\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right) = h^2\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + 2hk\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x\partial y} + k^2\frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}, \\ \mathcal{D}^3u_0 &= h^3\frac{\partial^3u_0}{\partial x^3} + 3h^2k\frac{\partial^3u_0}{\partial x^2\partial y} + 3hk^2\frac{\partial^3u_0}{\partial x\partial y^2} + k^3\frac{\partial^3u_0}{\partial y^3}, \text{ etc.}\end{aligned}$$

Example

$$u(x, y) = e^{2x-y}$$

where $x_0 = 0 = y_0, x = 0 + h, y = 0 + k, u_0 = u(0, 0) = 1$. So

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} &= 2e^{2x-y}, \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -e^{2x-y} \Rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}\right)_0 = 2, \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right)_0 = -1. \\ \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} &= 4e^{2x-y}, \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x\partial y} = -2e^{2x-y}, \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = e^{2x-y}, \\ \Rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}\right)_0 &= 4, \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x\partial y}\right)_0 = -2, \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2}\right)_0 = 1.\end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$e^{2x-y} = e^{2h-k} = 1 + (2h - k) + \frac{1}{2!}[4h^2 - 4hk + k^2] + \dots$$

Check: $e^{2h-k} = 1 + (2h - k) + \frac{1}{2!}(2h - k)^2 + \dots$

2.4.7 Stationary Points

We plotted surfaces $u(x, y)$ and their contours, we now ask whether our surface has a *horizontal tangent plan* at any point.

For *one* independent variable, we have local maximum, local minimum, and inflection point with horizontal tangent as the three cases for having horizontal tangent line. For *two* independent variable, we also have three types of stationary points each with a local horizontal tangent plane.

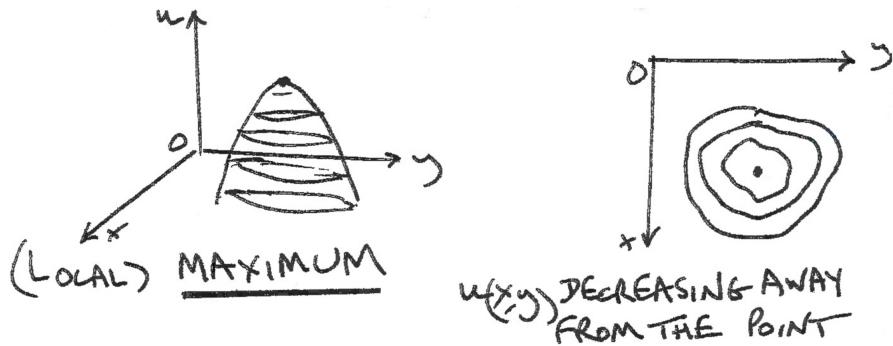


Figure 2.12: local maximum

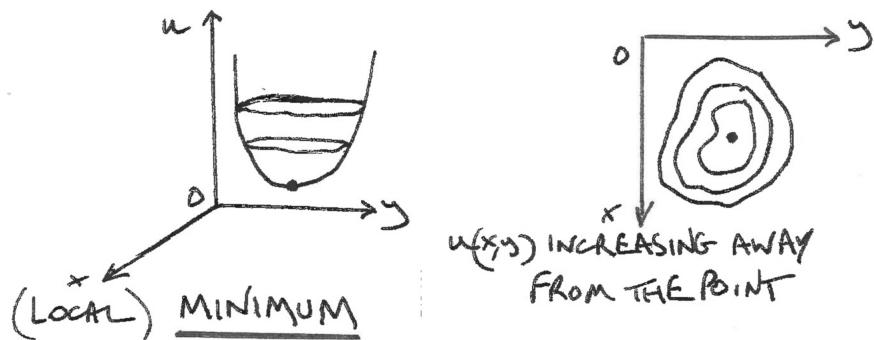


Figure 2.13: local minimum

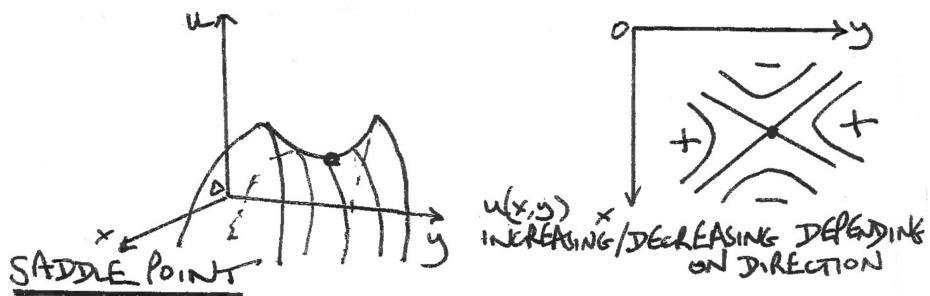


Figure 2.14: saddle point

How do we distinguish between these cases?

Consider a stationary point (x_0, y_0) where we have (of course) $\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}\right)_0 = 0 = \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right)_0$. Then we write out the Taylor expansion for $u(x, y)$ about (x_0, y_0) exactly as Equation (2.20). The first order terms are cancelled out, so

$$\begin{aligned}\delta u &= u(x_0 + h, y_0 + k) - u(x_0, y_0) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} [Ah^2 + 2Bhk + Ck^2] + \dots\end{aligned}$$

where

$$A = \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}\right)_0, \quad B = \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial y}\right)_0, \quad C = \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2}\right)_0,$$

and δu can be written in matrix form:

$$\delta u = \frac{1}{2} (h \ k) \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ B & C \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} h \\ k \end{pmatrix} + \dots.$$

Note: If A, B, C are all 0, then we need higher-order terms.

As such,

- (i) $\delta u > 0$ for *any* small h, k then $u(x_0, y_0)$ is a (local) minimum.
- (ii) $\delta u < 0$ for *any* small h, k then $u(x_0, y_0)$ is a (local) maximum.
- (iii) δu can be positive or negative depending on the value of h, k , then $u(x_0, y_0)$ is a saddle point.

The easiest way to determine this is via e.g.

$$\delta u = \frac{1}{2} k^2 \left[A \left(\frac{h}{k} \right)_2 + 2B \left(\frac{h}{k} \right) + C \right] + \dots$$

and consider

$$F(\lambda) = A\lambda^2 + 2B\lambda + C.$$

(Possible to think in terms of $B^2 - AC$, as this is more “natural” while thinking about *discriminant* of polynomials. Then all the following deductions/conclusions should be reversed!)

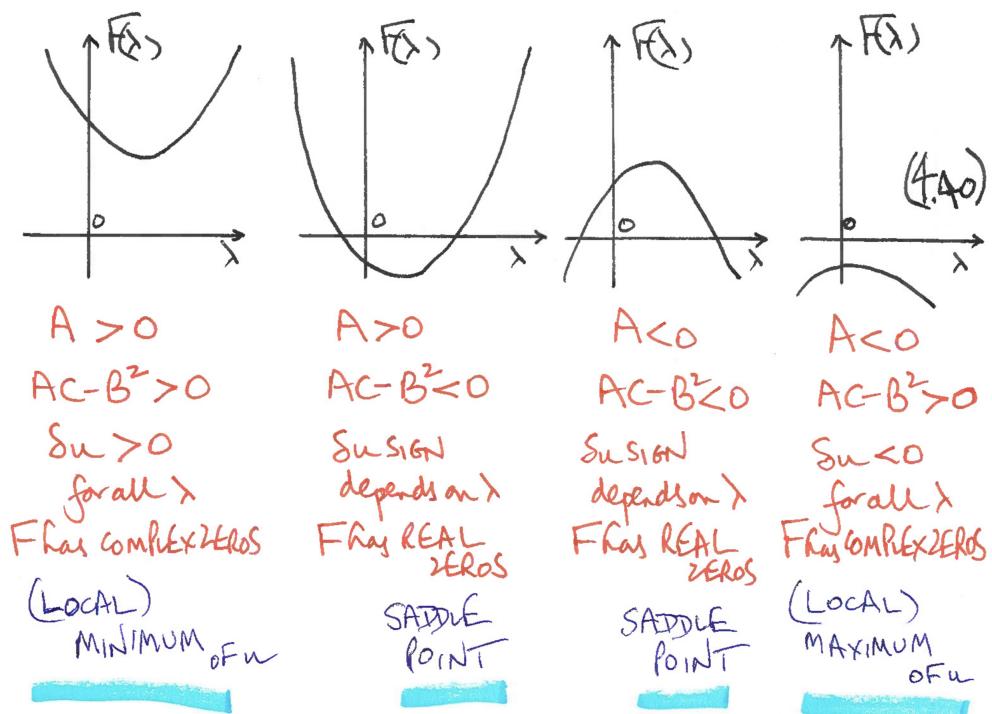


Figure 2.15: graphs to determine what type of stationary point it is

Summary For functions of two variables $u(x, y)$, stationary points are located at simultaneous solution of the two equations:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 0 \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = 0 \end{cases}$$

where $du = 0$ locally. Each (x_0, y_0) has *character* determined by

$$E_0 = \left[\left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \right) \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} \right) - \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial y} \right)^2 \right]_0 = AC - B^2$$

with

- $E_0 < 0$ implies a saddle point,
- $E_0 > 0$ and
 - $\left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \right)_0 < 0$ implies a (local) maximum,
 - $\left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \right)_0 > 0$ implies a (local) minimum.

Of course there are *singular* cases that can occur, such as $E_0 = 0, A = B = C = 0$ etc. These normally require higher-order derivatives to determine the issue — not considered here.

Examples

$$(i) \quad u(x, y) = x^3 + xy^2 - x - yx^2 - y^3 + y = (x - y)(x^2 + y^2 - 1).$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 3x^2 + y^2 - 1 - 2xy = 0 \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = 2xy - x^2 - 3y^2 + 1 = 0. \end{cases}$$

By adding the two equations up, we get $2x^2 - 2y^2 = 0, y = \pm x$. When $y = x, x = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$; when $y = -x, x = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}$. Thus there are four stationary points:

$$P_1 \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right), P_2 \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right), P_3 \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}, -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \right), P_4 \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \right).$$

P_i	$A = \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}\right)_0 = (6x - 2y)_0$	$B = \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial y}\right)_0 = (2y - 2x)_0$	$C = \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2}\right)_0 = (2x - 6y)_0$	$AC - B^2 \equiv E_0$	u_0	TYPE
P_1	$\frac{4}{\sqrt{2}}$	0	$-\frac{4}{\sqrt{2}}$	-8	0	SADDLE
P_2	$-\frac{4}{\sqrt{2}}$	0	$\frac{4}{\sqrt{2}}$	-8	0	SADDLE
P_3	$\frac{8}{\sqrt{6}}$	$-\frac{4}{\sqrt{6}}$	$\frac{8}{\sqrt{6}}$	+8	$-\frac{2\sqrt{2}}{3\sqrt{3}}$	MINIMUM
P_4	$-\frac{8}{\sqrt{6}}$	$\frac{4}{\sqrt{6}}$	$-\frac{8}{\sqrt{6}}$	+8	$+\frac{2\sqrt{2}}{3\sqrt{3}}$	MAXIMUM

Figure 2.16: stationary points analysis

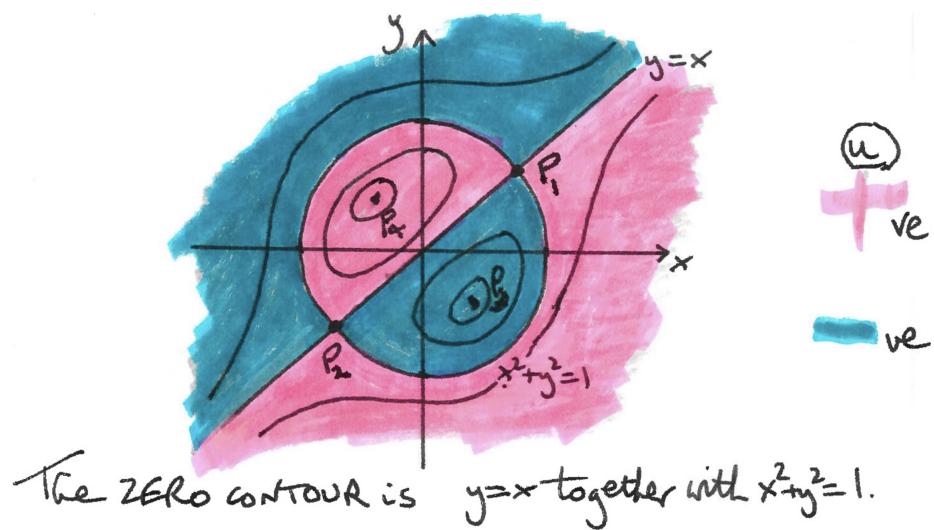


Figure 2.17: contour sketch

Then we can analyse the stationary points, as shown in Figure 2.16, and sketch the contours, as shown in Figure 2.17!

Warning: When we are faced with a function of several variables and we need to find stationary points (and potential local max and min), we need to ensure that our *independent* variables are indeed independent.

- (ii) Maximise volume $V = xyz$ of a rectangular box given the surface area $A = 2xy + 2yz + 2zx$ is fixed. In this case, x, y, z are *not* independent. We then need to write

$$z = \frac{A - 2xy}{2(x + y)} \Rightarrow V = \frac{xy(A - 2xy)}{2(x + y)}.$$

Now x, y are independent, so we can solve and derive that

$$x_0 = \sqrt{\frac{A}{6}} = y_0 (= z_0), V_{\max} = \left(\frac{A}{6}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}.$$

2.4.8 Application — Exact (First Order) Differential Equations

We know that for a function of two variables $u(x, y)$ the total differential is

$$du = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}dx + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}dy$$

and of course $\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}$ and $\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$ will both, in general, be functions of x and y . Now consider the converse problem! Given

$$P(x, y)dx + Q(x, y)dy$$

i.e. given P and Q , when is it the case that this *is* the total differential of some (as yet unknown) function $u(x, y)$? If it is such then $P(x, y) = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}$ and $Q(x, y) = \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$ for that function $u(x, y)$. This implies (easy!) and is implied by (proof not given here!) the condition of integrability:

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x}.$$

Examples

(i) $y^2dx + (x^2 + 2y)dy$. Since

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = 2y \neq \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} = 2x,$$

the test fails, and thus not an exact/total differential.

(ii) $(2xy + \cos x \cos y)dx + (x^2 - \sin x \sin y)dy$.

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = 2x - \cos x \sin y = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x},$$

so the test pass and it is exact. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} &= 2xy + \cos x \cos y \\ \Rightarrow u(x, y) &= x^2y + \sin x \cos y + f(y) \end{aligned}$$

where $f(y)$ is a ‘constant’ of integration w.r.t. x . Then either

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} &= x^2 - \sin x \sin y + \frac{df(y)}{dy} \\ &= x^2 - \sin x \sin y \end{aligned}$$

so that $\frac{df}{dy} = 0$ and $f(y) = K$ constant w.r.t. x and y , or alternatively

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} &= x^2 - \sin x \sin y \\ \Rightarrow u(x, y) &= x^2y + \sin x \cos y + g(x) \end{aligned}$$

where $g(x)$ is the ‘constant’ of integration w.r.t. y . Comparing the two expressions and deduce that $f(y) = g(x) = K$ constant independent of x and y . This also gives

$$u(x, y) = x^2y + \sin x \cos y + K$$

and $Pdx + Qdy = du(x, y)$.

Now consider an equation of the form

$$P(x, y)dx + Q(x, y)dy = 0.$$

This is a first order differential equation, with alternative forms $\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{P(x,y)}{Q(x,y)}$ and $P + Q\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$. If $Pdx + Qdy$ is the total differential of a function $u(x, y)$, i.e. $du(x, y) = 0$, then the solution is

$$u(x, y) = \text{constant } C.$$

Chapter 3

Linear Algebra

3.1 Introduction to Matrices and Vectors

3.1.1 Column vectors

Definition 100. A *column vector* (n -column vector) \mathbf{v}_n is a tuple of n real numbers written as a single column, with $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$\mathbf{v}_n := \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Definition 101. \mathbb{R}^n is the set of all column vectors of height n whose entries are real numbers. In symbols:

$$\mathbb{R}^n = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} : a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

Example 102. \mathbb{R}^2 can be seen as Euclidean plane. \mathbb{R}^3 can be seen as Euclidean space.

Caution: Our vectors always “start” at the origin.

Definition 103. The *zero vector* $\mathbf{0}_n$ is the height n -column vector all of whose entries are 0.

Definition 104. The *standard basis vectors* in \mathbb{R}^n are the vectors

$$\mathbf{e}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{e}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \dots, \quad \mathbf{e}_n = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

i.e. \mathbf{e}_k is the vector with k th entry equal to 1 and all other entries equal to 0.

Operations on column vectors

$$\mathbf{v} := \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{u} := \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{pmatrix}$$

be column vectors \mathbb{R}^n , and let λ be a (real or complex) number.

(1) Addition on vectors in \mathbb{R}^n is given by:

$$\begin{pmatrix} v_1 + u_1 \\ v_2 + u_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n + u_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$+ : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ (binary operation). $(\mathbb{R}^n, +)$ is a group.

(2) *Scalar multiplication* $\lambda \mathbf{v}$ on \mathbb{R}^n :

$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda v_1 \\ \lambda v_2 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda v_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$s : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, so not binary operation.

- (3) **Dot product** $v \cdot u$ is defined to be the number $v_1u_1 + v_2u_2 + \dots + v_nu_n$.
 $\cdot : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, so not binary.

Example 105. Show that $(\mathbb{R}^n, +)$ is an Abelian group.

- Identity: $\mathbf{0}_n$ ($v + \mathbf{0}_n = v$)

- $-v$ are inverses, where

$$-v := \begin{pmatrix} -v_1 \\ -v_2 \\ \vdots \\ -v_n \end{pmatrix}$$

- associativity: $(u + v) + w = u + (v + w)$.
- commutative: $u + v = v + u$

Caution: $+$ only makes sense for vectors of the *same size*. e.g. $v \cdot \mathbf{0}_n = 0 \in \mathbb{R}$.

Definition 106. let $v_1, v_2, v_3, \dots, v_n \in \mathbb{R}^n, \lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3, \dots, \lambda_n \in \mathbb{R}$, then

$$\lambda_1 v_1 + \lambda_2 v_2 + \dots + \lambda_n v_n$$

is called a *linear combination* of $v_1, v_2, v_3, \dots, v_n$.

Definition 107. The set of all linear combinations of a collection of vectors v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n is called the *span* of the vectors v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n .

Notation:

$$\text{span}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\} := \{\lambda_1 v_1 + \lambda_2 v_2 + \dots + \lambda_n v_n | \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

Example 108. compute the span of

- $\{e_1, e_2\}, e_1, e_2 \in \mathbb{R}^2$.

$$\text{span}\{e_1, e_2\} = \{\lambda_1 e_1 + \lambda_2 e_2 | \lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{R}\} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix} | \lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

- $\text{span}\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ 2\lambda_2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} | \lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$

Definition 109. let $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. The *length* of \mathbf{v} , a.k.a. the *norm* of \mathbf{v} , is the non-negative real number $\|\mathbf{v}\|$ defined by

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}}$$

Note: $\|\mathbf{0}\| = 0$, and conversely if $\mathbf{v} \neq 0$ then $\|\mathbf{v}\| > 0$. This definition agrees with our usual ideas about the length of a vector in \mathbb{R}^2 or \mathbb{R}^3 , which follows from Pythagoras' theorem.

Definition 110. A vector $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is called a *unit vector* if $\|\mathbf{v}\| = 1$.

Example 111.

- (1) Any non-zero vector \mathbf{v} can be made into a unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}} := \frac{\mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|}$. This process is called *normalizing*.
- (2) The standard basis vectors are unit vectors.

3.1.2 Basic Matrix Operations

Definition 112. An $n \times m$ -matrix is a rectangular grid of numbers called the *entries* of the matrix with n rows and m columns. A real matrix is one whose entries are real numbers, and a complex matrix is one whose entries are complex numbers.

Notations: $M_{n \times m}(\mathbb{R})$, $M_{n,m}(\mathbb{R})$, $\text{Mat}_{n \times m}(\mathbb{R})$, $\mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$.

Operations on matrices:

Definition 113. let $A = (a_{ij})$ and $B = (b_{ij})$ are $n \times m$ -matrix, $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. Then:

- (1) $A + B = n \times m$ -matrix $(a_{ij} + b_{ij})$. $+ : M_{n \times m}(\mathbb{R}) \times M_{n \times m}(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow M_{n \times m}(\mathbb{R})$
- (2) $\lambda A = n \times m$ -matrix (λa_{ij})

Theorem 114. $(M_{n \times m}(\mathbb{R}), +)$ is an Abelian group.

Definition 115. The *transpose* A^T of an $n \times m$ -matrix (a_{ij}) is the $m \times n$ -matrix (a_{ij}) . The *leading diagonal* of a matrix is the $(1, 1), (2, 2), \dots$ entries. So the transpose is obtained by doing a reflection in the leading diagonal.

(Multiplying matrices with vectors) Definition 116. Let $A = (a_{ij})$ be an $n \times m$ -matrix, $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Then $A\mathbf{v}$ is the vector in \mathbb{R}^n with i -th row entry $\sum_{j=1}^m a_{ij}\mathbf{v}_j$

Example 117.

- Prove that for $A \in M_{n \times m}(\mathbb{R})$, $\mathbf{e}_k \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $A\mathbf{e}_k = k$ -th column of A.

Proof: let $A = (a_{ij})$. By definition the i -th entry of $A\mathbf{e}_k$ is

$$\sum_{j=1}^m a_{ij}(\mathbf{e}_k)_j = a_{ik}$$

since $(\mathbf{e}_k)_j = 0$ whenever $j \neq k$, 1 for $j = k$

- Let I_n be the identity matrix. Show formally that $I_n\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$, $\forall \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
- $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v}$
- let $\mathbf{\nu}_1, \mathbf{\nu}_2, \mathbf{\nu}_3 \in \mathbb{R}^3$. Write the linear combination $3\mathbf{\nu}_1 - 5\mathbf{\nu}_2 + 7\mathbf{\nu}_3$ as a multiplication of matrix $A \in M_{3 \times 3}(\mathbb{R})$ with a vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3$. Then

$$A\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{\nu}_1 \quad \mathbf{\nu}_2 \quad \mathbf{\nu}_3) \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = x_1\mathbf{\nu}_1 + x_2\mathbf{\nu}_2 + x_3\mathbf{\nu}_3$$

with $\mathbf{\nu}_1, \mathbf{\nu}_2, \mathbf{\nu}_3$ written as a column vector to form a matrix in the above expression, thus using matrix multiplication to express linear combination of vectors.

3.2 Systems of linear equations

3.2.1 Definitions

Definition 118. A *linear equation* in the variables $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}$ is an equation of the form:

$$\lambda_1 x_1 + \lambda_2 x_2 + \dots + \lambda_n x_n = c, \text{ with } \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n \subset \text{Fixed real numbers}$$

Caution: In particular, no powers/multiplications/function of one or more variables.

Definition 119. A system of n linear equations is a list of simultaneous linear equations. It can be converted to $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$, with

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

Caution: Thee $m \times n$ -matrix A is called coefficient matrix. The matrix $(A|\mathbf{b})$ where the vector \mathbf{b} is added as a column on the right is called **augmented matrix**.

Definition 120. A system is called *consistent* (resp. inconsistent) if it has a solution (s_1, s_2, \dots, s_m) (resp. no solution).

Example 121.

$$\begin{cases} x_1 + x_3 - x_4 = 1 \\ x_2 - x_4 = 6 \\ x_1 + x_2 + 6x_3 - 3x_4 = 0 \end{cases}$$

Augmented matrix form:

$$\left(\begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 & 6 \\ 1 & 1 & 6 & -3 & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

Definition 122. A *row operation* is one of the following procedures on a $n \times m$ -matrix (a_{ij}) :

- (1) $r_i(\lambda)$: multiply row i by a scalar $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}, \lambda \neq 0$.
- (2) r_{ij} : swap row i with row j .
- (3) $r_{ij}(\lambda)$: multiply row i by $\lambda \neq 0, \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ and add it to row j .

Example 123. let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$, so

$$r_{12} \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$r_2(2) \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 6 & 8 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$r_{12}(2) \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 5 & 8 \end{pmatrix}$$

Proposition 124. Let $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ be a system of linear equations in matrix form, $(A|\mathbf{b})$ the augmented matrix, $(A'|\mathbf{b}')$ the augmented matrix of the system after row operation. Show that x is solution of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b} \iff x$ is solution of $A'\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}'$.

Proof. row operations of type (1) and (2) \Rightarrow trivial.

(3) Take equation i , multiply it by λ , add it to equation j . $\Rightarrow (a_{j1} + \lambda a_{i1})x_1 + \dots + (a_{jm} + \lambda a_{im})x_m = b_j + \lambda b_i$. \square

Caution: Every row operation is invertible:

$$[r_i(\lambda)]^{-1} = r_i\left(\frac{1}{\lambda}\right), [r_{ij}]^{-1} = r_{ij}, [r_{ij}(\lambda)]^{-1} = r_{ij}(-\lambda)$$

3.2.2 Gauss algorithm

Definition 125. The left most non-zero entry in a non-zero row is called *leading entry*. A matrix is called in *echelon form* if:

- (1) The leading entry in each non-zero row is 1.
- (2) The leading 1 of each row is to *the right* of the leading 1 in the row above.
- (3) The zero-rows are *below* all other rows.

Example 126.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Only the last one is in echelon form.

Definition 127. A matrix is *row reduced echelon form* if:

- (1) It is in echelon form.
- (2) The leading 1 in each row is the *only* non-zero entry in its column.

Example 128.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \alpha & \beta & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The second one is not, unless $\beta = 0$.

The point of RRE form is that if we have a system of equations

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$$

and A is in RRE form, then we can easily read off the solution (if any). There are four cases to consider:

- (1) Every column of A contains a leading 1, and there are no zeros row. In this case the only possibility is that $A = I_n$ is the identity matrix.

Then the equations are simply

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= b_1 \\ x_2 &= b_2 \\ &\vdots \\ x_n &= b_n \end{aligned}$$

and they have a unique solution, the entries of \mathbf{b} .

- (2) Every column of A contains a leading 1, and there are some zero rows. Then A must have more rows than columns, and it must be a matrix of the form

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} I_n \\ \mathbf{0}_{k \times n} \end{pmatrix}$$

i.e. it looks like an identity matrix with a block of zeros underneath. In this case, the first n equations are

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= b_1 \\ x_2 &= b_2 \\ &\vdots \\ x_n &= b_n \end{aligned}$$

and the last k equations are

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= b_{n+1} \\ 0 &= b_{n+2} \\ &\vdots \\ 0 &= b_{n+k} \end{aligned}$$

Now there are two possibilities:

- If any of the last k entries of \mathbf{b} are non-zero then this system has no solutions, because the last k equations are never satisfied for any \mathbf{x} and the system is inconsistent.
- If the last k entries of \mathbf{b} are all zero then the system has a unique solution, given by setting $x_i = b_i$ for each $i \in [1, n]$.

- (3) Some columns of A do not contain a leading 1, but there are no zero rows, for instance

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & a_{13} \\ 0 & 1 & a_{23} \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{or} \quad A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a_{12} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

If the i th column of A does not contain a leading 1 then the corresponding variable x_i is called a **free variable**, or free parameter. These variables can be set to any values. Each remaining variable is called a **basic variable** and we have a single equation

$$x_j + (\dots) = b_j$$

where the expression in the brackets only contains free parameters. This equations determines the value of x_j , in terms of the entries in \mathbf{b} and the values of the free parameters. This kind of system always has infinitely many solutions, we say it is **underdetermined**.

Definition 129. A leading entry in a matrix in RRE form is also called a **Pivot position**. A **Pivot column** is a column containing a Pivot position.

(Gauß algorithm) Proposition 130. Any matrix can be put into RRE form by performing a sequence of row operations.

Proof. Our proof will consist of the explicit description of the algorithm. Let A be an arbitrary matrix. Step 1—Step 3 below is called the **forward phase** and is used to bring the matrix A into echelon form. Step 4 is called the **backward phase** and is used to bring A into RRE form.

Step 1: Choose your first pivot position, which is the first non-zero leading term. Do row operation such that the leading term becomes 1.

Step 2: Create zeros below your first leading entry by multiplying the row with the leading entry and subtract it from the subsequent rows.

Step 3: Repeat the first two steps to bring the whole matrix into echelon form.

Step 4: Create zeros above the leading entries to convert to RRE row by row, by multiplying the row where the selected leading entry is in, and subtract it from the above rows.

□

It is also true (althouth we won't show this) that the RRE form of a matrix is unique; if you apply any sequence of row operations which puts your matrix into RRE form, the result is the same as the output of the algorithm we just described.

Now we have a systematic procedure for solving a system of simultaneous linear equations $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$:

- (1) Form the augmented matrix $(A|\mathbf{b})$.
- (2) Apply the algorithm above to put the augmented matrix into RRE form $(A'|\mathbf{b}')$.
- (3) Read off the solutions to $A'\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}'$

In fact it's not necessary to get the whole matrix $(A'|\mathbf{b}')$ into RRE form, you can stop when the left block A' is in RRE form. Doing further operations to adjust the final column will not help you read the solutions.

Example 131. Solve

$$\begin{cases} 3x_1 + 5x_2 - 4x_3 = 0 \\ -3x_1 - 2x_2 + 4x_3 = 0 \\ 6x_2 + x_2 - 8x_3 = 0. \end{cases}$$

The RRE form of the above equation is

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -\frac{4}{3} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and the geometric interpretation of this is a line!

Proposition 132. The number of solutions to a system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ is always either 0, 1, or ∞ .

Proof. Assume the number of solutions is not 0, and not 1. Take 2 solution ν and v , $\nu \neq v$.

$$\Rightarrow A\nu = Av = b \Rightarrow A(\nu - v) = 0 = \omega \neq 0$$

Take: $\nu + \lambda\omega, \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\Rightarrow A(\nu + \lambda\omega) = A\nu + \lambda A\omega = A\nu = b = b$$

So $\nu + \lambda\omega$ is a solution $\forall \lambda \in \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow \infty$ many solutions. □

3.3 Matrix Multiplication

3.3.1 Basics of Matrix Multiplication

Definition 133. $A \in M_{m,n}(\mathbb{R}), B \in M_{n,k}(\mathbb{R})$. Then the product AB is defined such that the $(AB)_{ik} = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}b_{jk}$ (row i column k)

Operation: $M_{m,n}(\mathbb{R}) \times M_{n,k}(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow M_{m,k}(\mathbb{R})$. It is a binary operation on $M_{n,n}(\mathbb{R})$, square matrices! Be careful with the size of the matrices.

Caution:

- The (i, j) -entry of AB is the dot product of r_i^T with c_j .
- Other way to see it: column j of AB is Ac_j .

Proposition 134. Let $A, A' \in M_{m,n}(\mathbb{R}), B, B' \in M_{n,p}(\mathbb{R})$. Then

$$(1) \quad A(BC) = (AB)C. \text{ (Associativity)}$$

(2)

$$\begin{cases} A(B + B') = AB + AB' \\ (A + A')B = AB + A'B \end{cases} \quad \text{Distributivity}$$

$$(3) \quad \forall \lambda \in \mathbb{R}, (\lambda A)B = A(\lambda B) = \lambda(AB). \text{ (Compatibility with scalar multiplication.)}$$

Caution:

- Let $A \in M_{m,n}(\mathbb{R})$, then $0_{k \times m}A = 0_{k \times n}, A0_{n \times e} = 0_{m \times e}$.
- $\forall A \in M_{n,n}(\mathbb{R}), I_n A = A I_n = A$.
- In general, $AB \neq BA$, i.e. not commutative.
- A^2 does not guarantee to be $0_{n,n}$, e.g. $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Definition 135. A *diagonal matrix* is a square matrix $D \in M_{n,n}(\mathbb{R})$, s.t.

$$\begin{cases} D_{ij} = 0, i \neq j \\ D_{ij} = \lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}, i = j \end{cases}$$

Goal: When can we bring matrices to this form? \rightsquigarrow diagonalization.
E.g. $I_n, 0_{n \times n}$.

Definition 136. *Lower triangular matrix*: $a_{ij} = 0, i < j$. (strictly lower if $i \leq j$) *Upper triangular matrix*: $a_{ij} = 0, i > j$. (strictly upper if $i \geq j$)

Example 137. echelon form, RRE (Upper triangular). Lower + upper triangular = diagonal.

3.3.2 Inverse of a Matrix and Invertibility

Definition 138. Let $AM_{n,n}(\mathbb{R})$. A $n \times n$ -matrix A^{-1} is called *inverse* of A if:

$$AA^{-1} = I_n = A^{-1}A.$$

Caution: Not all matrices are *invertible*!

Lemma 139.

- (1) If A is invertible, then its inverse is unique.
- (2) If A is invertible and either $AB = I_n$ or $BA = I_n$, for some $BM_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$, then $B = A^{-1}$.

Proof.

- (1) See group theory.
- (2) $B = I_nB = (A^{-1}A)B = A^{-1}(AB) = A^{-1}I_n = A^{-1}$. Same for BA .

□

Lemma 140. Assume $A, B \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$, invertible. Then AB is invertible and $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$.

Lemma 141. Let $A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$.

- (1) If $\exists \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$ s.t. $A\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$, then A is not invertible.
(extended: same if $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^{nT}, \mathbf{v}A = \mathbf{0}$.)
- (2) If $\exists B \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}), B \neq 0_{n \times n}$ s.t. $AB = 0_{n \times n}$ or $BA = 0_{n \times n}$, then A is not invertible.

Proof.

- (1) (contrapositive) Assume A is invertible $\iff \exists A^{-1} \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$, s.t. $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I_n$. Assume $A\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$, so $A^{-1}A\mathbf{v} = I_n\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$, contradiction.
- (2) Assume $BA = 0_{n \times n}$. A invertible $\Rightarrow \exists A^{-1}$ s.t. $AA^{-1} = I_n$. Therefore $B = BI_n = B(AA^{-1}) = (BA)A^{-1} = 0_{n \times n}$, contradiction.

□

Corollary 142. If $A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$ invertible, then it cannot have a row/column of zeros.

Proof. Exercise!

□

Definition 143. An **elementary matrix** R is a matrix which differs from $I_n \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$ by only *one* elementary row operation. Multiplying a matrix by the elementary matrix on the left is equivalent of performing an elementary row operation on that matrix.

Type 1 Apply $r_i(\lambda)$ to I_n . Multiplying $A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$ by $R_i(\lambda)$ on the left.

Type 2 Apply r_{ij} to I_n . Multiplying A by R_{ij} on the left swaps row i and j in A .

Type 3 Apply $r_{ij}(\lambda)$ to I_n .

Fact: Elementary matrices are *invertible* since row operations are reversible. You can always produce an inverse of an elementary matrix which represents the reversed process of elementary row operation.

Lemma 144. Let $A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$, A' obtained from A by elementary row operations. Then A invertible $\iff A'$ invertible.

Proof. $A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$. Say we got A' from A by row operation. $A' = RA$ for some R elementary matrix. Both A and R are invertible. Then A' is invertible, and $A'^{-1} = A^{-1}R^{-1}$.

For ' \Leftarrow ', $A' = RA \iff R^{-1}A' = A$. □

Lemma 145. $A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$, A' the RRE form of A . Then: A' invertible $\iff A'$ has no zero rows.

Proof. " \Leftarrow ": Assume A' has no zero rows $\Rightarrow A'$ has a leading one in each column. $\Rightarrow A' = I_n$. □

Corollary 146. A is invertible \iff Its RRE form is the identity matrix.

Algorithm to compute inverse:

Step 1 Write the augmented matrix $(A|I_n)$.

Step 2 Bring $(A|I_n)$ to RRE form $\rightarrow (A|I_n) \rightarrow (R_1A|R_1I_n) \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow (R_m \cdots R_2R_1A|R_m \cdots R_2R_1)$.

Step 3 Read result.

Example 147.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 4 & -3 & 8 \end{pmatrix}$$

and calculate its inverse!

$$\begin{aligned}
 (A|I_3) &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 4 & -3 & 8 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & -3 & 8 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & -4 & 0 & -4 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 3 & -4 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{3}{2} & -2 & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix} \\
 &\vdots \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -\frac{9}{2} & 7 & -\frac{3}{2} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -2 & 4 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{3}{2} & -2 & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

Caution: If at any point you get a row of 0s, Stop! (matrix not invertible)

Caution: Now that we know how to get inverses. Consider: $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$. (system of linear equations) If A invertible: $A^{-1}\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{x}$. (Solution is unique.)

3.3.3 Determinant

Definition 148. let $A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix}$, so $\det A = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{21}a_{12} \neq 0 \iff A$ is invertible.

Definition 149. Let $A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$. A_{ij} is the **submatrix** obtained by deleting row i and column j of A . A_{ij} is called the (i, j) -minor.

Definition 150. The **determinant** of an $n \times n$ -matrix $A = (a_{ij})$ is given by:

$$\det A = \sum_j (-1)^{j+i} a_{ij} \det A_{ij} = \sum_i (-1)^{i+j} a_{ij} \det A_{ij}.$$

The first expression is called the *expansion along the i -th row*, while the second expression is called the *expansion along the j -th column*.

Example 151. Find the determinant of

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Rules for determinants Let $A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$.

- (1) Operation $r_i(\lambda)$ produces matrix B , s.t. $\det B = \lambda \det A$.
- (2) Operation r_{ij} produces matrix B , s.t. $\det B = -\det A$.
- (3) Operation $r_{ij}(\lambda)$ leaves determinant invariant.
- (4) let $B \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$, $\det AB = \det A \cdot \det B$.
- (5) $\det A = \det A^T$.

Proposition 152. $n \times n$ -matrix A is invertible $\iff \det A \neq 0$.

Proof.

- “ \Rightarrow ”: Assume A invertible $\Rightarrow \exists A^{-1}$ s.t. $AA^{-1} = I_n$. ($\det I_n = 1!$) So $\det(AA^{-1}) = \det A \cdot \det A^{-1} = \det I_n = 1$. Therefore $\det A \neq 0 \neq \det A^{-1}$.
- “ \Leftarrow ”: Assume $\det A \neq 0$. Since elementary matrices are invertible, their determinants are $\neq 0$, so the determinant of RRE form A' is going to be $\neq 0 \Rightarrow A' = I_n \Rightarrow A$ invertible.

□

Definition 153. Let $\sigma \in S_n$. An *inversion* is a pair of integers (i, j) s.t.:

$$0 < i < j \leq n \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma(i) \geq \sigma(j).$$

The *sign* of a permutation $\text{sgn } \sigma$ is given by

- $+1$, if number of inversion is even
- -1 , if number of inversion is odd.

Definition 154. Let $A \in M_{n,n}(\mathbb{R})$, then

$$\det A = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \text{sgn } \sigma a_{1\sigma(1)} a_{2\sigma(2)} \cdots a_{n\sigma(n)}.$$

Example 155. Let $A = I_n$. Show that $\det I_n = 1$.

3.4 Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

3.4.1 Basic Definitions

Definition 156. Let $A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, λ is an *eigenvalue* to the *eigenvector* $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$ if

$$A\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}.$$

Geometrically, applying A to \mathbf{v} just “rescales” \mathbf{v} .

Warning:

- \mathbf{v} eigenvector $\iff (A - \lambda I_n)\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$.
- $I_n\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} \forall \mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow 1$ is the only eigenvalue to *all* vectors.
- $0_{n \times n}\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}_n = 0 \cdot \mathbf{v} \Rightarrow 0$ is the only eigenvalue to *all* vectors.

Proposition 157. Let $A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$. Then λ is eigenvalue of $A \iff A - \lambda I_n$ is not invertible.

Proof. A invertible $\iff \exists n$ non-zero vectors s.t. $A\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$. Since we want *non-zero* solutions of $(A - \lambda I_n)\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$, $A - \lambda I_n$ cannot be invertible! \square

Example 158. $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Find the eigenvalues.

Augmented matrix:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 - \lambda & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 - \lambda & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Case 1 $\lambda = 1 \Rightarrow$ RRE is I_2 , not what we want!

Case 2 Assume $\lambda \neq 1$. Convert to RRE, and to ensure that the matrix is not invertible, $\lambda^2 - 2\lambda - 3 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = -1, 3$.

Definition 159. *Trace* of $A_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$ $\text{tr } A$ is $\sum_{i=1}^n a_{ii}$.

Definition 160. The *characteristic polynomial* of $A_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{R})$ is

$$\lambda^2 - \text{tr } A \lambda + \det A.$$

In general, for $A_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$ is

$$\det(A - \lambda I_n).$$

3.4.2 Diagonalization

Definition 161. Let $A, B \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$. A and B are called *similar* if $\exists P \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$ invertible s.t.

$$A = P^{-1}BP.$$

A is called *diagonalizable* if B is diagonal. If A is similar to B , then B is similar to A .

Proposition 162. Similar matrices have the same eigenvalues.

Proof. To solve:

$$\begin{aligned}
 0 &= \det(A - \lambda I_n) \\
 &= \det(P^{-1}BP - \lambda I_n) \\
 &= \det(P^{-1}BP - \lambda P^{-1}P) \\
 &= \det(P^{-1}(B - \lambda I_n)P) \\
 &= \det P^{-1} \det(B - \lambda I_n) \det P \\
 &= \det(P^{-1}P) \det(B - \lambda I_n) \\
 &= 1 \cdot \det(B - \lambda I_n) \\
 &= \det(B - \lambda I_n).
 \end{aligned}$$

□

Warning: The eigenvectors are in general *not* the same. But if $A\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v} \iff P^{-1}BP\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v} \iff B(P\mathbf{v}) = \lambda(P\mathbf{v})$.

Lemma 163. Let $A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$. Assume $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ are eigenvectors of A . Then if $P = (\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \dots \ \mathbf{v}_n)$ is invertible, then A is diagonalizable and $A = PDP^{-1}$ with D 's leading diagonal entries being the eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$.

Proof. We can consider $P^{-1}AP = D \iff AP = PD$. Look at the k -th column vector of AP : $A\mathbf{v}_k = \lambda_k\mathbf{v}_k$. Look at the k -th column vector of PD : $P\lambda_k e_k$, which the diagonal identity matrix “extracts” out the eigenvectors one by one. (e_k is an identity matrix) □

3.5 vector space

3.5.1 Axioms and Examples

Definition 164. A *vector space* is a set V together with

- a binary operation: $+ : V \times V \rightarrow V$, $(v, \nu) \mapsto v + \nu$.
- a scalar multiplication: $\mathbb{R} \times V \rightarrow V$, $(\lambda, \nu) \mapsto \lambda\nu$.

such that:

- (1) $(V, +)$ is an Abelian group
- (2) $1 \cdot \nu = \nu$.
- (3) $\forall \lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{R}, \nu \in V: \lambda(\mu\nu) = (\lambda\mu)\nu$
- (4) $\forall \lambda \in \mathbb{R}, \nu, v \in V: \lambda(v + \nu) = \lambda v + \lambda\nu$
- (5) $\forall \lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{R}, \nu \in V, (\lambda + \mu)\nu = \lambda\nu + \mu\nu$.

There are 9 axioms to be satisfied!

Example 165.

- (1) Our “model”: \mathbb{R}^n . Especially \mathbb{R} is a vector space.
- (2) $\mathbb{R}[x]_{\leq n} = \{a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \cdots + a_nx^n | a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}, x \in \mathbb{R}\}$.
- (3) $M_{n,m}(\mathbb{R})$.

Lemma 166. V is vector space, $x \in V$, then

- (1) $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, nx = x + x + \cdots + x$.
- (2) $0x = 0_V$.
- (3) $(-1)x$ is additive inverse.

Proof.

- (1) $1v = v \forall v \in V$. $2v = (1+1)v = 1v + 1v = v + v$. Induction!
- (2) $0x = (0+0)x = 0x + 0x$. Since there is an inverse of $0x$ because addition is Abelian, add it on both sides:

$$0_V = 0x + (0x)^{-1} = 0x + 0x + (0x)^{-1} = 0x + 0_V = 0x.$$

- (3) $0_V = 0x = (1 + (-1))x = 1x + (-1)x = x + (-1)x = x - x = 0$, therefore $(-1)x = x^{-1}$ over addition.

□

Definition 167. Let V be a vector space. A subset $U \subseteq V$ is called **subspace** if:

- (1) If $x, y \in U$, $x + y \in U$. (Closure on addition)
- (2) If $x \in U$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, then $\lambda x \in U$. (Closure on scalar multiplication)
- (3) $0_V \in U$. (equivalent to saying $U \neq \emptyset$)

Note: $(U, +)$ is an Abelian group.

Example 168.

- (1) Let $U \in \mathbb{R}^3$, $U = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \mid x + y + z = 0 \right\}$. It is geometrically a plane!
(spanned by $\begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.) It “looks” like \mathbb{R}^2 .
- (2) Let $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^\mathbb{R} := \{F|F : \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}\}$, $U := \{F|F(\pi) = 0\}$. (Be careful with the e , treat it as $0^f : x \mapsto 0$)
- (3) $U := \{\lambda v \mid \lambda \in \mathbb{R}\} \subseteq V$.
- (4) Every vector space has two *trivial* subspaces: itself and $\{0_V\}$.

If $U \subseteq V$ is a subspace which is neither itself nor $\{0_V\}$, then it is called a **proper** subspace.

Lemma 169. Let V be a vector space, $U, W \subseteq V$ are subspaces, then

- (1) $U \cap W$ is a subspace.
- (2) $U \cup W$ is *not* a subspace. (Unless $U \subseteq W$ and $W \subseteq U$.)

Proof. Exercise! (Write it out rigorously!) □

Remark

- Concrete example for (2): let $U = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \mid x \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$, $W = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ y \end{pmatrix} \mid y \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$. Both subspaces form a coordinate system, and their addition forms the coordinates on the coordinate system!
- $U + V := \{x + y \mid x \in U, y \in W\}$ is a subspace of V . (Exercise)

3.5.2 Spanning Sets

Definition 170. Let V be a vector space, $S \subseteq V$ be a subset. A **linear combination** of elements $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n \in S$ is a vector $x \in V$:

$$x = \lambda_1 v_1 + \lambda_2 v_2 + \cdots + \lambda_n v_n$$

where $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n \in \mathbb{R}$.

Subsequently, all V denotes a vector space.

Lemma 171. Let $U \neq \emptyset, U \subseteq V$, then U is a subspace \iff every linear combination of element of U is in U .

Proof. Exercise! □

Definition 172. Let $S \subseteq V$ be a subset $S \neq \emptyset$,

$$\text{Span } S := \{\lambda_1 v_1 + \lambda_2 v_2 + \cdots + \lambda_n v_n \mid \lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n \in \mathbb{R}, v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n \in S\}.$$

In addition,

$$\text{Span } \emptyset := \{0_V\}.$$

Proposition 173. $\text{Span } S$ is a subspace of V .

Proof. Exercise! □

Definition 174. Set S is called the *spanning set* if $\text{Span } S = V$.

Example 175. Take $\text{Span}\{e_1, e_2, e_3\} = \mathbb{R}^3$, which forms the normal 3-D coordinate system we usually see. So $\{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$ is the spanning set of \mathbb{R}^3 .

Lemma 176. $S \subseteq V$ subset, $S \subseteq U$ for some subspace $U \subseteq V$. Then $\text{span } S \subseteq U$.

Notation: Subsequently, \subset and \subseteq are used interchangeably, “strictly a subset of” is represented by \subsetneq , denoting “a proper subset”, and depending on additional conditions, “a proper subspace”.

Proof. U subspace \Rightarrow closed under addition + scalar multiplication \Rightarrow closed under taking linear combination. Then since $S \subseteq U \Rightarrow \text{Span } S \subseteq U$ by definition. \square

Warning: If S is a spanning set of V , it cannot be contained in any proper subspace of V . (If $S \subseteq U$ for some subspace $U \subset V$, then U is *not* closed under linear combinations of elements of S .)

Definition 177. A vector space is called *finite-dimensional* if it has a *finite spanning set*.

Notation: $\dim V < \infty$.

Note: If you want to prove that a vector space V is *not* finite-dimensional then it is not enough to find an infinite spanning set: you have to prove that no finite spanning set exists. Indeed, every vector space (except the zero vector space) has an infinite spanning set, e.g. the set $S = V$.

Definition 178. The *dimension* of a finite-dimensional vector space, written as $\dim V$, is the size of the smallest spanning set.

Example 179.

- Consider the vector space $\mathbb{R}[X]_{\leq d}$ of all polynomials of degree at most d . This is finite-dimensional, since the subset $S = \{1, X, X^2, \dots, X^d\}$ is a spanning set.

- Consider the vector space $\mathbb{R}[X]$. It is not finite-dimensional. Suppose we pick a finite set $S = \{P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}[X]$. Each polynomial P_i has some degree d_i , and if we set $d = \max(d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n)$, then S is contained in the proper subspace $\{\mathbb{R}[X]\}_{\leq d}$. So by the previous lemma, the subset S is not a spanning set.

3.5.3 Linear independence

Definition 180. A subset $L \subset V$ is called **linearly dependent** if we can find *distinct* vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n \in L$ and *non-zero* scalars $\lambda_1 \neq 0, \lambda_2 \neq 0, \dots, \lambda_n \neq 0$ s.t.

$$\lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \lambda_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \cdots + \lambda_n \mathbf{v}_n = \mathbf{0}_V.$$

If L is not linearly dependent we say that it is **linearly independent**.

Note: If $L' \subset L$ and L' is linearly-dependent, then L is also linearly-dependent (just use the same \mathbf{v}_i 's and λ_i 's). So if L is linearly-independent then any subset of L is also linearly-independent.

Example 181. If $\mathbf{0}_V \in L$ then L is linearly-dependent, because we can take any $\lambda \neq 0$ and observe that $\lambda \mathbf{0}_V = \mathbf{0}_V$.

Definition 182. A **basis** of a vector space is a linearly independent spanning set. The plural of basis is **bases**.

Proposition 183. Let $B = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\} \subset V$ be a (finite) basis of vector space V . Then every vector in V can be written as a linear combination of elements in B , in a *unique* way. Conversely, any finite subset B with the above property is a basis.

Proof. Exercise! □

Definition 184. If we find a (finite) basis $B = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$, then any vector $\mathbf{x} \in V$ can be uniquely expressed as

$$\mathbf{x} = \lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \cdots + \lambda_n \mathbf{v}_n.$$

The scalars λ_i are called the **coefficients of x with respect to B** . Every vector $\mathbf{x} \in V$ corresponds to a unique set of coefficients $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$.

To put it more formally, the basis B allows us to define a function

$$F_B : \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto V$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \lambda_2 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \cdots + \lambda_n \mathbf{v}_n.$$

What Proposition 183 says is that the function F_B is a bijection. Note that F_B^{-1} sends a vector \mathbf{x} to its coefficients with respect to B .

Lemma 185. Let $S \subset V$ be a spanning set, and suppose that S is not linearly independent. Then $\exists \mathbf{x} \in S$ s.t. $S' = S \setminus \{\mathbf{x}\}$ is still a spanning set.

Proof. Exercise! (Be careful that after removing an element from the spanning set, you need to show that it is not a spanning set of a subspace!)

Set $S' = S \setminus \{\mathbf{s}_1\}$. Then $\mathbf{s}_1 \in \text{span } S'$, and trivially $S' \subset \text{span } S'$, so $S \subset \text{span } S'$. By Lemma 176, $\text{span } S \subset \text{span } S' \Rightarrow V \subset \text{span } S'$. This implies that $\text{span } S' = V$. \square

Corollary 186. Any finite spanning set contains a basis.

Proof. Exercise!

\square

Corollary 187. Any finite-dimensional vector space V has a basis.

Proof. Exercise!

\square

Proposition 188. Let $S \subset V$ be a spanning set of V , and let $L = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$ be a *finite linearly independent* subset of V , then $\exists T = \{\mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_n\} \subset S$, with the same size as L , s.t.

$$S' = (S \setminus T) \cup L$$

is a spanning set.

Proof. Exercise! □

Corollary 189. Let V be a finite-dimensional vector space, $S \subset V$ be a finite spanning set and $L \subset V$ be a linearly independent subset. Then L is finite and $|L| \leq |S|$.

Theorem 190. Let V be a finite-dimensional vector space with $\dim V = n$. Then any basis of V is finite and has size n .

Proof. Exercise! (Hint: use \leq, \geq to deduce $=$). □

Therefore, to check dimension, we just need to check if the spanning set is a basis and count its elements.

3.5.4 Dimension of Subspaces

Lemma 191. Assume $L \subseteq V$ linearly independent, $v \in V$, $v \notin L$, then $L \cup \{v\}$ still linearly independent.

Proof. Exercise! □

Lemma 192. If V is *not* finite dimensional ($\dim V = \infty$), then $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \exists L \subset V$ linearly independent subset s.t. $|L| = n$.

Proof. Exercise! (Hint: Induction!) Write it out formally! □

Lemma 193. Let $\dim V < \infty = n$. Then any linearly independent subset of size n is a basis.

Proof. Exercise! (Use contradiction!) □

Lemma 194. Let $\dim V < \infty$, then any linearly independent subset is contained in a basis.

Proof. Exercise! □

You can prove by adding linearly independent elements to the set, and this procedure is called ***basis extension***.

Example 195.

$$v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3$$

are linearly independent. Extend it to a basis.

$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} | x + 2z = 0 \right\} \subset \mathbb{R}^3.$$

So for instance, $v = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \notin L$.

Proposition 196. Let $\dim V = n < \infty$, $U \subseteq V$ subspace. Then

- (1) U is finite dimension
- (2) $\dim U \leq \dim V$
- (3) $\dim U = \dim V \Rightarrow U = V$.

Proof. Exercise! □

Example 197. Possible subspaces of \mathbb{R}^2 . ($\dim 0, 1, 2$) ($\dim \mathbb{R}^2$) If $n = 0 : \{0_V\}$ (0 vector space, *not* \emptyset !) If $n = 2 : \mathbb{R}^2$.

Proper subspaces have dimension $n = 1$ iff it has a one-dimensional *basis* $\{v\} = L$. $L = \{\lambda v | \lambda \in \mathbb{R}\}$, which is a line passing through the origin.

3.5.5 Linear Maps

Definition 198. Let U, V be vector spaces. A function $f : U \mapsto V$ is called **linear** if:

$$(1) \quad f(u + v) = f(u) + f(v)$$

$$(2) \quad f(\lambda v) = \lambda f(v)$$

where $u, v \in U$.

Example 199.

(1) Let $A \in M_{n,k}(\mathbb{R})$, $T_A : \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, $x \mapsto Ax$.

(2) $0 : U \rightarrow V$, $u \mapsto 0_V$.

(3) $V = \mathbb{R}[x]$ (vector space of all polynomials). $D : \mathbb{R}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}[x]$, $P \mapsto \frac{dP}{dx} (= P') =: D(P)$.

(4) $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \mapsto x^2 + y^2$.

Lemma 200. $f : U \rightarrow V$ is linear $\Rightarrow f(0_U) = 0_V$.

Proof. $f(0_U) = f(0_U + 0_U) = f(0_U) + f(0_U)$. Then by taking the inverse of $f(0_U)$ on both sides, i.e. minus $f(0_U)$ on both sides, because only addition is defined, so $f(0_U) = 0_V$. \square

Warning: The converse is not true!

Lemma 201. Let $f : U \rightarrow V$, $g : V \rightarrow W$ be linear, then $g \circ f : U \rightarrow W$ is also linear.

Proof. Exercise! \square

Definition 202. Let $f : U \rightarrow V$ be linear. Then the **image** of f is: $\text{Im } f := \{f(u) | u \in U\} \subseteq V$. The **kernel** of f is: $\text{Ker } f := \{u \in U | f(u) = 0_V\} \subseteq U$.

Lemma 203. Let $f : U \rightarrow V$ be linear. Then $\ker f \subseteq U$ and $\text{Im } f \subseteq V$ are subspaces.

Proof. Exercise! □

Example 204. $A \in M_{1,3}(\mathbb{R})$, $A = (1, 1, 1)$. $T_A : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $x \mapsto Ax$ s.t.

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \mapsto A \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = x + y + z.$$

$$\ker T_A := \{v \in \mathbb{R}^3 | T_A v = 0_{\mathbb{R}}\} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3 | x + y + z = 0 \right\}.$$

Lemma 205. A linear map $f : U \rightarrow V$ is injective $\iff \ker f = \{0_U\}$.

Proof. Exercise! □

Definition 206. The *preimage* of y is the set $f^{-1}(y) = \{x \in U | f(x) = y\}$.

Lemma 207. Let $f : U \rightarrow V$ linearly, $y \in V$ fixed. Suppose $x \in U$ s.t.

$f(x) = y$. Then

$$f^{-1}(y) = \{x + v | v \in \ker f\}.$$

Proof. Exercise! (Warning: it is very hard to prove directly that two sets are equal! Instead, use \subseteq and \supseteq to derive $=$) Be careful with what you are proving, is it $=$ or \subseteq ? For set, if proving $=$ directly, ensure that it is *bi-directional*. □

Example 208. $A \in M_{n,k}(\mathbb{R})$, $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$. $A\mathbf{x} = b$, $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^k \iff T_A \mathbf{x} = b$. There are three possibilities:

- (1) No solution: $b \notin \text{Im } T_A$.
- (2) one solution: $b \in \text{Im } T_A$, $\ker T_A = \{0_{\mathbb{R}^k}\}$.
- (3) ∞ -many solution $b \in \text{Im } T_A$, $\dim \ker T_A \neq 0$.

Definition 209. Let $f : \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be linear. Then $f \equiv T_A$ for some matrix $A \in M_{n,k}(\mathbb{R})$.

Proof. Exercise! (It is constructive proof!) □

Proposition 210. Let $f : U \rightarrow V, g : U \rightarrow V$ be linear. $B = \{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_k\}$ basis of U . Assume $f(b_i) = g(b_i) \forall i$, then $f = g$.

Proposition 211. Let U, V vector spaces, $B = \{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_k\}$ basis of U , $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\} \subset V$. Then there exists a *unique linear map* s.t. $f(b_i) = v_i \forall i$.

Chapter 4

Analysis

4.1 Sequence and Convergence

Definition 212. A *sequence* (of real numbers) is a map (function)
 $F : \mathbb{N} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$.

(Triangle Inequality) **Theorem 213.** Triangle inequality: $|x - y| \leq |x - z| + |z - y|$. (most common form: $|x + y| \leq |x| + |y|$)
“Reversed” triangle inequality: $||x| - |y|| \leq |x - y|$.

Proof. Assume $|x| \geq |y|$, and replace x with $x - y$ in $||x| - |y|| \leq |x - y|$:

$$|x| \leq |x - y| + |y| \Rightarrow ||x| - |y|| \leq |x| - |y| \leq |x - y|.$$

□

Definition 214. A sequence a_n is *convergent* if

$$\exists L \in \mathbb{R} \text{ s.t. } \forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } \forall n \geq N, |a_n - L| \leq \epsilon.$$

Definition 215. A sequence a_n is called *divergent* if

$$\forall L \in \mathbb{R}, \exists \epsilon > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall N \in \mathbb{N}, \exists n \geq N \text{ s.t. } |a_n - L| \geq \epsilon.$$

Example 216.

(1) $a_n = \frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0$. (Hint: Use Archimedean property: $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $N > \frac{1}{\epsilon}$.)

(2) $a_n = C \rightarrow C$.

(3) $a_n = n$ is divergent.

(4) $a_n = (-1)^n$ is divergent. (Hint: applying triangle inequality, $|a_n - a_{n+1}| = |a_n - L + L - a_{n+1}| \leq |a_n - L| + |L - a_{n-1}|$.)

Definition 217. Let (a_n) be a sequence, $S \in \mathbb{N}$. The **shift** of (a_n) by S is the sequence $b_n := a_{n+S}$.

Lemma 218. Let (a_n) be a sequence, $S \in \mathbb{N}$, and $b_n := a_{n+S}$, then b_n converges $\iff a_n$ converges.

Proof. Exercise! □

Definition 219. A sequence is (strictly) decreasing if $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, a_{n+1} \leq a_n$ (resp. $a_{n+1} < a_n$). A sequence is (strictly) increasing if $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, a_{n+1} \geq a_n$ (resp. $a_{n+1} > a_n$).

Definition 220. Let (a_n) be a sequence. Then:

- (a_n) is **bounded above** if $\exists R_1 \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $a_n \leq R_1$.
- (a_n) is **bounded below** if $\exists R_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $a_n \geq R_2$.
- (a_n) is **bounded** if $\exists R \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $|a_n| \leq R$. (Take $R = \max(|R_1|, |R_2|)$)

Definition 221. **Supremum** is the least upper bound, **infimum** is the biggest lower bound

(Completeness) Axiom 222. Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $S \neq \emptyset$, bounded above (resp. below), then S has a supremum in \mathbb{R} (resp. infimum).

Example 223. $S = \{s \in \mathbb{Q} : s^2 < 2\}$ does not have a supremum. Prove it!

Proposition 224. Let (a_n) be increasing and bounded above, then it is convergent, and $a_n \rightarrow \sup a_n$.

Proof. Exercise! □

Proposition 225. Let (a_n) be convergent, then a_n is bounded.

Proof. Exercise! □

Theorem 226. A bounded monotonic sequence is convergent.

Example 227. Consider $a_{n+1} = \sqrt{a_n + 6}$, $a_1 = 0$. Show that it is bounded (by 3) and monotonic. ($a_n = \sqrt{a_n a_n} < \sqrt{3a_n} = \sqrt{a_n + 2a_n} < \sqrt{a_n + 6} = a_{n+1}$.)

Proposition 228. Suppose $\exists L, M \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $a_n \rightarrow L$ and $a_n \rightarrow M$. Then $L = M$. (The limit is *unique*.)

Proof. Exercise! (using direct proof or contradiction) □

Theorem 229. Let (a_n) and (b_n) be sequences s.t. $a_n \rightarrow L$, $b_n \rightarrow M$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, then:

- (1) $a_n + b_n \rightarrow L + M$
- (2) $|a_n| \rightarrow |L|$
- (3) $\lambda a_n \rightarrow \lambda L$
- (4) $a_n b_n \rightarrow LM$
- (5) If $M \neq 0$, $b_n \neq 0 \forall n$, $\frac{a_n}{b_n} \rightarrow \frac{L}{M}$.

Proof. Exercise! (the fourth one can be proven in two approaches) \square

(Sandwich Test) Proposition 230. Assume $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n \forall n, a_n \rightarrow L \wedge c_n \rightarrow L \Rightarrow b_n \rightarrow L$.

Proof. Exercise! \square

Definition 231. Let (a_n) be a sequence, $(a_{F(n)})$ is a subsequence if $F : \mathbb{N} \mapsto \mathbb{N}$ is strictly increasing.

Proposition 232. Assume $a_n \rightarrow L$, then for any subsequence $a_{F(n)}$, $a_{F(n)} \rightarrow L$.

Proof. Exercise! \square

Corollary 233. A sequence having (divergent) subsequences converging to different limits is divergent.

Proposition 234. Any sequence has a monotonic subsequence.

Proof. Exercise! (Recall *peak points!* Divide into two cases, where $S = \{n \mid a_m > a_n \forall m > n\}$.) \square

Theorem 235. Any *bounded* sequence has convergent subsequence.

Proof. Exercise! \square

Warninig: In general you cannot find the convergent subsequence explicitly.

Definition 236. Let (a_n) be a sequence. (a_n) is **Cauchy** if:

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } \forall m, n > N, |a_m - a_n| < \epsilon.$$

Proposition 237. A Cauchy sequence is bounded.

Proof. Exercise! □

Proposition 238. Let (a_n) be a convergent sequence $\iff (a_n)$ is Cauchy.

Proof. Exercise! □

Warning: Cauchy \iff convergent *in* \mathbb{R} (and in \mathbb{C}), not in \mathbb{Q} !

4.2 Limits

Definition 239. Let $L \in \mathbb{R}$, $f : \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$. $f(x) \rightarrow L$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$ iff

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists R \in \mathbb{R} \text{ s.t. } x > R \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

Definition 240. Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $f : \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$. $f(x) \rightarrow \infty$ as $x \rightarrow a$ iff

$$\forall M \in \mathbb{R}, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t. } |x - a| < \delta \Rightarrow f(x) > M.$$

Definition 241. Let $L \in \mathbb{R}$, $f : \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$. $f(x) \rightarrow \infty$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$ iff

$$\forall M \in \mathbb{R}, \exists R \in \mathbb{R} \text{ s.t. } x > R \Rightarrow f(x) > M.$$

Definition 242. Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $F : (a, \infty) \mapsto \mathbb{R}$, $F \rightarrow L \in \mathbb{R}$ as $x \rightarrow a^+$ iff

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t. } x \in (a, a + \delta) \Rightarrow |F(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

This is called the ***right-hand limit***. The pictorial illustration of this concept is as shown in Figure 4.1.

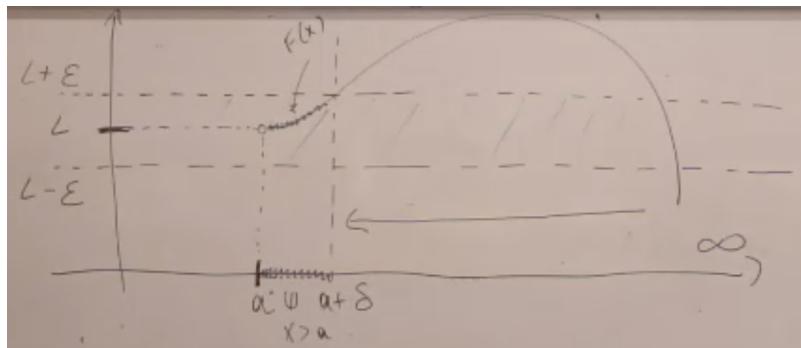


Figure 4.1: right limit illustration

Definition 243. Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $F : (-\infty, a) \mapsto \mathbb{R}$, $F \rightarrow L \in \mathbb{R}$ as $x \rightarrow a^-$ iff

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t. } x \in (a - \delta, a) \Rightarrow |F(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

This is called the **left-hand limit**. Graphical understanding is similar to that of right limit.

Caution: $F(a)$ does not need to be defined!

Lemma 244. Suppose $F : (a, b) \mapsto \mathbb{R}$, and assume that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} = L_1$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} = L_2$, then $L_1 = L_2$.

Proof. Exercise! (Be careful to take $\delta := \min(\delta_1, \delta_2)$ instead of the maximum!) \square

(Limit) Definition 245. Let $a, L \in \mathbb{R}$, $f : \mathbb{R} \setminus \{a\} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$. $f(x) \rightarrow L$ as $x \rightarrow a$, or $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$, iff

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t. } 0 < |x - a| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

Definition 246. Let $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ be an open interval and let $a \in I$ be a point. Take two functions $f, g : I \setminus \{a\} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ s.t.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L_2,$$

then

1. $\lim_{a \rightarrow 0}(f(x) + g(x)) = L_1 + L_2$
2. $\lim_{a \rightarrow 0}(f(x)g(x)) = L_1 L_2$
3. If $f(x) \neq 0 \forall x$, then $\lim_{a \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{f(x)} = \frac{1}{L_1}$.

4.2.1 Continuous functions

Definition 247. Let $f : (b, c) \mapsto \mathbb{R}$, and pick $a \in (b, c)$. f is **continuous at a** iff

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$$

or the other way to say it is

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall x \in \mathbb{R}[|x - a| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon].$$

Definition 248. Let $f : I \mapsto \mathbb{R}$, where $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ is either

- an interval (a, b) for some $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, or
- an interval $(-\infty, b)$, or
- an interval (a, ∞) , or
- $I = \mathbb{R}$,

we say that f is **continuous everywhere**, or just **continuous**, if f is continuous at $a \forall a \in I$. The four kinds of subsets $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ are called **open intervals**.

Example 249. **Rational functions** $R(x) := \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$ are continuous, if P, Q polynomial, and $Q(X) \neq 0 \forall x$.

Strategy for $\epsilon - \delta$ -proofs of continuity

1. Compute $f(a)$.
2. Look at $|f(x) - f(a)|$ to see how it can be controlled by $|x - a| < \delta$.
3. (This step may not be required.) Assume $\delta < C$ for some $C \in \mathbb{R}^+$ in order to control other possible factors of $|f(x) - f(a)|$ found in the previous step.
4. Find δ as a function of ϵ ($\delta(\epsilon)$) and write down the proof starting over from the beginning.

Definition 250. f is **discontinuous at a** iff

$$\exists \epsilon > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall \delta > 0, \exists x \in \mathbb{R} [|x - a| < \delta \wedge |f(x) - f(a)| \geq \epsilon].$$

While picking the particular x so that it satisfy the discontinuity condition, ensure that it satisfy for *all* δ .

Example 251. $F : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $g(x) = 0$ when $x = 0$, and $g(x) = \sin \frac{1}{x}$ when $x \neq 0$. Prove that F is not continuous at 0.

Proposition 252. Let $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ and $J \subset \mathbb{R}$ be open intervals, $f : I \rightarrow F(I) \subset J \subset \mathbb{R}$, $g : J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are continuous, then $g \circ f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous.

Sequential Criterion for continuous functions

There is connection between (convergent) sequences and continuous function.

Proposition 253. Let $I \subset \mathbb{R}$, then $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous $\iff f(a_n) \rightarrow f(a) \ \forall (a_n) \text{ s.t. } a_n \rightarrow a$.

Proof. Exercise! □

Example 254.

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2, & x \in \mathbb{Q} \\ -x^2, & x \notin \mathbb{Q} \end{cases} \quad \text{if } f \text{ is continuous at } a.$$

But $f(a_n) = a_n^2 \rightarrow a^2$, $f(b_n) = -b_n^2 \rightarrow -a^2$, and both are equal only if $a = 0$.

Example 255.

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \sin \frac{1}{x}, & x \neq 0 \\ 0, & x = 0 \end{cases} \quad \text{not continuous at } 0.$$

continuous function on closed bounded interval

Definition 256. A function $f : K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, where $K = [b, c]$, is continuous if:

- f is continuous on (b, c) .
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} f(x) = f(c)$.
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow b^+} f(x) = f(b)$.

Lemma 257. let $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ be open, $K \subset I$ be closed bounded. Then if $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ continuous $\Rightarrow f|_K : K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ continuous.

Definition 258. Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be a subset, $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ a function. f is called **bounded** $\iff \exists R \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $|f(x)| \leq R \forall x \in S$.

Warning: Usually continuous functions on open interval are not bounded, e.g. $\frac{1}{x}$ on $(0, 1)$.

Proposition 259. Let $K = [b, c]$ closed bounded, $f : K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ continuous. Then f is bounded.

Proof. Assume f is not bounded $\iff \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \exists x_n \in K$ s.t. $|f(x_n)| > n$. Consider the sequence (x_n) on $K \Rightarrow (x_n)$ is bounded. By Bolzano Weierstraß, \exists convergent subsequence (x_{n_k}) s.t. $x_{n_k} \rightarrow L \in K = [b, c]$. Now by sequential criterion since f is continuous $f(x_{n_k}) \rightarrow f(L)$. But f is unbounded, therefore so is $f(x_{n_k})$, it cannot be convergent! \square

Definition 260. If $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. $\sup f := \sup \{f(x) | x \in S\}$, and $\inf f := \inf \{f(x) | x \in S\}$.

Theorem 261. Let K be a closed bounded interval, $f : K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ continuous. Then:

- (1) $\exists x \in K$ s.t. $f(x) = \sup f$.
- (2) $\exists y \in K$ s.t. $f(y) = \inf f$.

Proof. (1) Suppose that $f(x) \neq \sup f$, $\forall x \in K$. Define $g : K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $g(x) := \frac{1}{\sup f - f(x)}$ well defined. So g is continuous on a bounded interval \Rightarrow bounded. Since $\sup f$ is supremum, $\sup f - \frac{1}{n}$ is not an upper bound for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$. $\Rightarrow \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \exists x_n \in K$ s.t. $f(x_n) > \sup f - \frac{1}{n} \iff \frac{1}{n} > \sup f - f(x_n) \iff n < \frac{1}{\sup f - f(x_n)} = g(x_n)$ is bounded!

- (2) Largely identical process of proof.

□